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ABSTRACT

The proceedings of this conference include 56 papers on program design, classroom techniques, and ideas for second language instruction for business and the professions. The papers are presented in eight groups: (1) "International Business: The Language and Culture Connection," which includes papers on multinational business, marketing, international studies, the community college program, and the role of liberal arts; (2) "Program Overviews," which includes descriptions of interdisciplinary, undergraduate, and graduate programs; (3) "Teaching Techniques," which includes papers on audiovisual and computer applications, case studies, simulation, strategic interaction, and genre-analysis for languages for special purposes; (4) "ESL (English as a Second Language) for Business and the Professions," which includes papers on English for business in Thailand, refugee nursing students, a Master of Comparative Law program, and careers in the petroleum industry; (5) "French for Business and the Professions," which includes papers on language and cultural instruction for commerce, hotel administration, health and social professionals, and other non-language majors; (6) "German for Business and the Professions," which includes papers on cross cultural programs, cultural simulation, using visuals, commercial German, and German business letter style; (7) "Spanish for Business and the Professions," which includes papers on the American workplace and urban environment, program planning and implementation, public education, social work, law, medicine and the health professions, the psychological professions, general technical purposes, and legal assisting; and (8) papers on miscellaneous topics, including journalism, banking, court interpreting, internships, and proficiency testing. (MSE)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE 1985 EMU CONFERENCE
ON
LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

HYATT REGENCY HOTEL, DEARBORN, MICHIGAN
MAY 2-4, 1985

Compiled and Organized by

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PREFACE

The 1985 EMU Conference on Languages for Business and the Professions was the fourth in a series of annual meetings on applied foreign languages organized by the faculty of the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies and the Language and International Trade Program at Eastern Michigan University, in cooperation with the Division of Continuing Education.

This year, we are especially fortunate to have support for the conference from both the Michigan Council for the Humanities and the Exxon Education Foundation. These two sources of financial assistance--the one dependent on the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the other created by a multinational enterprise--reflect the two separate worlds which we are attempting to bring together at the conference: the humanities and business/professions. This funding allowed us to reach a much wider audience with our message that an education soundly based in the liberal arts has continuing value in our changing world.

The development of multilingualism and international sensitivity and understanding in the United States is essential to our future prosperity and is directly related to world peace. This conference is our attempt to promote the kind of active dialogue among language teachers, business people and other professionals which is necessary as we seek to prepare ourselves for effective roles in the global society of the 21st century. Hopefully, the exchange of ideas and experiences made possible by this conference will stimulate the development of new courses and programs of study in this field and will help us all be more effective teachers. We view our activities as part of an internationalization of our educational system and of our society, which--in the future more than in the past--will embrace a rich diversity of ethnic and linguistic components. In the broadest sense, we are attempting to expand the role and redefine the relevance of the humanities in our increasingly interdependent global community. We at EMU are proud to be able to contribute to this major new direction in foreign language education.

Special thanks are owed to my friends and colleagues Ray Schaub, Director of the EMU Language and International Trade Program, and John Hubbard, until recently Head of the Department of Foreign Languages, who helped in numerous ways to plan details of the conference and to make it a success. Needless to say, the conference would have been impossible to organize without the help of many other people, too numerous to mention here. To the faculty members at EMU who served on the Conference Organizing Committee, and to those colleagues from EMU and from other institutions who accepted moderating responsibilities, I extend my special thanks. Finally and most importantly, my warmest feelings of gratitude go to the numerous people from the business community and from academia, who came from many parts of the USA and from abroad, without honoraria and often at their own expense, to make presentations at the 40 conference sessions.

I am also grateful again this year to the U.S. Department of Education and specifically to the people responsible for the ERIC Microfiche Collection for contributing to the natinal dissemination of the conference proceedings, making the majority of the presentations available to people unable to attend the conference in person. The present volume of papers, together with those previously disseminated in this manner from the three earlier meetings, constitute the single most important source of research and thinking on applied languages available anywhere in the world. Their existence will undoubtedly prove valuable to many people seeking information on the present state of activities, knowledge and expertise in this academic area.

Finally, my thanks to Beatrice Green, Secretary of the Language and International Trade Program, and to our two Graduate Assistants, Adriana Passarelli and Evelyn Strnat, who worked hard to prepare this manuscript.

GMV, February 18, 1986

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

May 2-4, 1985

PART I

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS: THE LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL CONNECTION

INTERCULTURAL ASPECTS OF MULTINATIONAL BUSINESS

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Intercultural Aspects of Multinational Business

There is ample evidence that the United States today faces a "knowledge gap." This deals with our knowledge of the now shrunken world and our competence to deal with it.

Like it or not, America is involved in the world. Nationally, one out of every eight manufacturing jobs depends on exports. One out of every three dollars of U. S. corporate profits is derived from international activities. Exports of American goods and services contribute nearly $200 billion to our gross national product. Significantly, our fastest growing export markets are in the developing world, about which we know least as a people.

Indeed, there is a paradox, at a time when neither we nor any other nation in the world can go it alone even if we wished, our understanding of this fact and our preparation to live in such a world seem notably inadequate. By temperament and training, we Americans are not well equipped to deal with our new situation. We are thrown into contact and conflict with peoples whose history and motivations we scarcely understand.

Can we, for example, comprehend the new forms of political change, quite distinct from Western models, that are evolving before our eyes? Or, how many educated Americans--aside from a few scholars--appreciate in even the vaguest way, the dynamism and values of Islamic cultures? Worse still, few of us speak anyone else's language. The 1979 report of the Presidents' Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (known as the Perkins Commission) indicated that only 8% of U.S. colleges and universities had a foreign language entrance requirement compared to 34% in 1966 and an astounding 85% in 1915.[1]

Language per se certainly does not mean automatic understanding of other societies, but its virtual absence in our curricula may be symptomatic of how we view the world.

The Perkins Commission raised the important question: How well equipped are we to make an effective response to our new situation?

The fact of the matter is that we seem woefully unprepared to respond effectively. Consider:

-only one in twenty undergraduates enrolls in courses dealing with foreign peoples and cultures.

-only about one percent of college and university faculty members go abroad each year.

-fewer than 2% of high school graduates have any foreign language competence.

Our "scandalous incompetence in foreign languages" as James Perkins wrote, affects our foreign affairs. For example, few of the U. S. foreign service officers in Iran were minimally proficient in Farsi, the main local language during the revolutionary year of 1978, and few foreign service officers speak Chinese or Japanese at truly useful levels.[2]

After completing twelve years of primary and secondary schools and even another four of college, many Americans begin their professional lives without having completed a single course directly related to the international problems which their generation must face.[3]

Prior to World War II, the number of firms involved in foreign direct investment was relatively small. Although several U. S. companies were obtaining raw materials from other countries, most firms were only interested in the U.S. market. This changed, however, during the 1950's especially after the creation of the European Economic Community. Since that time there has been a rapid expansion in international business activity.

The majority of the world's large corporations now performs an increasing proportion of their business activities outside of their home country. For many of these companies, international business returns over one-half of their profits, and as Table 1 indicates, it is becoming more and more common for a typical corporation to earn at least one-fifth of its revenues through international business involvement. In fact, it is now rather rare for any large firm not to be a participant in the world of international business. (See Table 1)

One of the major challenges facing most Departments of Business Administration in the 1980's and 1990's is what to do about international business. It is an area that warrants consideration for expansion because of the forces at work in the world today. Consider:

1. The substantial economic and industrial growth experienced by many industrial nations and some less developed countries.
2. The competitive aggressiveness of some countries in the international market.

Table 1

U. S. Multinational's Foreign Activity 1983

Company	Foreign Revenue ($ million)	Foreign Revenue Percent	Foreign Assets Percent
Exon	68093	73%	62%
Gulf	12484	44%	47%
Standard Oil, Calif.	11191	40%	32%
Dupont	9546	27%	28%
Standard Oil, Indiana	5902	20%	34%
Sun Company	4441	29%	35%
Xerox	2776.3	33%	39%
Tenneco Inc.	2203	15%	14%
Texaco	1788	55%	54%
Signal Companies	1604	26%	11%
Chrysler	1598.3	12%	18%
International Paper Co.	763.3	13%	28%
Alcoa	670.6	13%	12%
Abbott Laboratories	668	23%	29%
Champion Spark Plug	251.1	33%	38%

Source: Annual Reports.

3. The integration of European nations into a powerful and successful community.
4. The collusion of oil-producing countries into an effective price setting entity.
5. The appearance of the People's Republic of China as a new open market for trade and investment.
6. The continued balance of trade and payments deficits of the U. S.
7. The success of the Eurodollar market in channeling hundreds of billions of dollars into the international financial market.
8. The growing interest of U. S. businesses in promoting and expanding their sales and investments in the international market.

International business is of great importance in most countries and that importance continues to grow. The challenge of business programs over the next decade is to undertake changes in their curriculum to meet the demand for increased knowledge in the areas of international marketing, management, accounting, and finance.

Several groups of experts have made studies of what is being done, or what should be done concerning this challenge.

1. The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business recognized the need for increased treatment of international business when it altered its accreditation standards to require that curricula of business schools reflect worldwide, as well as

domestic, aspects of business.[4]

2. Former President Carter appointed a 25 member commission to evaluate the role of universities in preparing students in foreign languages and international studies. The findings of the commission were published in a study "Strength Through Wisdom, A Critique of U. S. Capability." In brief, their recommendation was that it was up to the colleges and universities to extend and improve their curricula in meeting the growing needs in foreign languages and international business.[5]
3. The need for additional teaching of international aspects of business was reflected also in a survey of business leaders' attitudes conducted by Lee Nehrt. Ninety percent of business leaders included in the survey responded that, "Most business firms, domestic as well as multinational corporations will be affected directly or indirectly by economic and political developments in the international scene and most businessmen will, therefore, need an ability to understand and anticipate those effects."[6] This attitude is further supported by the findings of the 1983 report of the American Council on Education entitled "America's Competitive Challenge: The Need for a National Response."

We now live in a world in which the economies of nations are closely intertwined because of the international transactions of both large and small multinational corporations. Present-day graduates of business schools may well establish their careers in multinational corporations, and those who do not will surely have to deal with multinational corporations in one way or another. Therefore it is imperative that business graduates have a good understanding of how multinational corporations operate and of the nature of the managerial tasks in such enterprises.

One of the goals of any international business curriculum must be to establish an awareness and understanding of the cultural environment of multinational business. The importance of understanding the cultures of countries in which a company operates--as well as the similarities and differences between those cultures--becomes clear when one looks at the multitude of blunders international executives have made because of insensitivity to cultural differences. Investigators who have studied the performance and problems of corporations and individuals abroad have concluded that it is usually the human problems associated with working in a different culture that are likely to be critical in the success or failure of their endeavors. Analysis of problems and failures abroad have shown that the techniques, practices, and methods that have proved effective in one country may not work as well in another country; one dominant interfering factor is culture. Management practices that are suited for one cultural environment may bring about undesireable, perhaps terrible consequences in another culture. In international business dealings, then, ignorance of cultural differences is not just unfortunate--it is bad business. A manager must recognize the cultural imperatives abroad and make appropriate changes in his or her own interpersonal behavior and managerial practices.

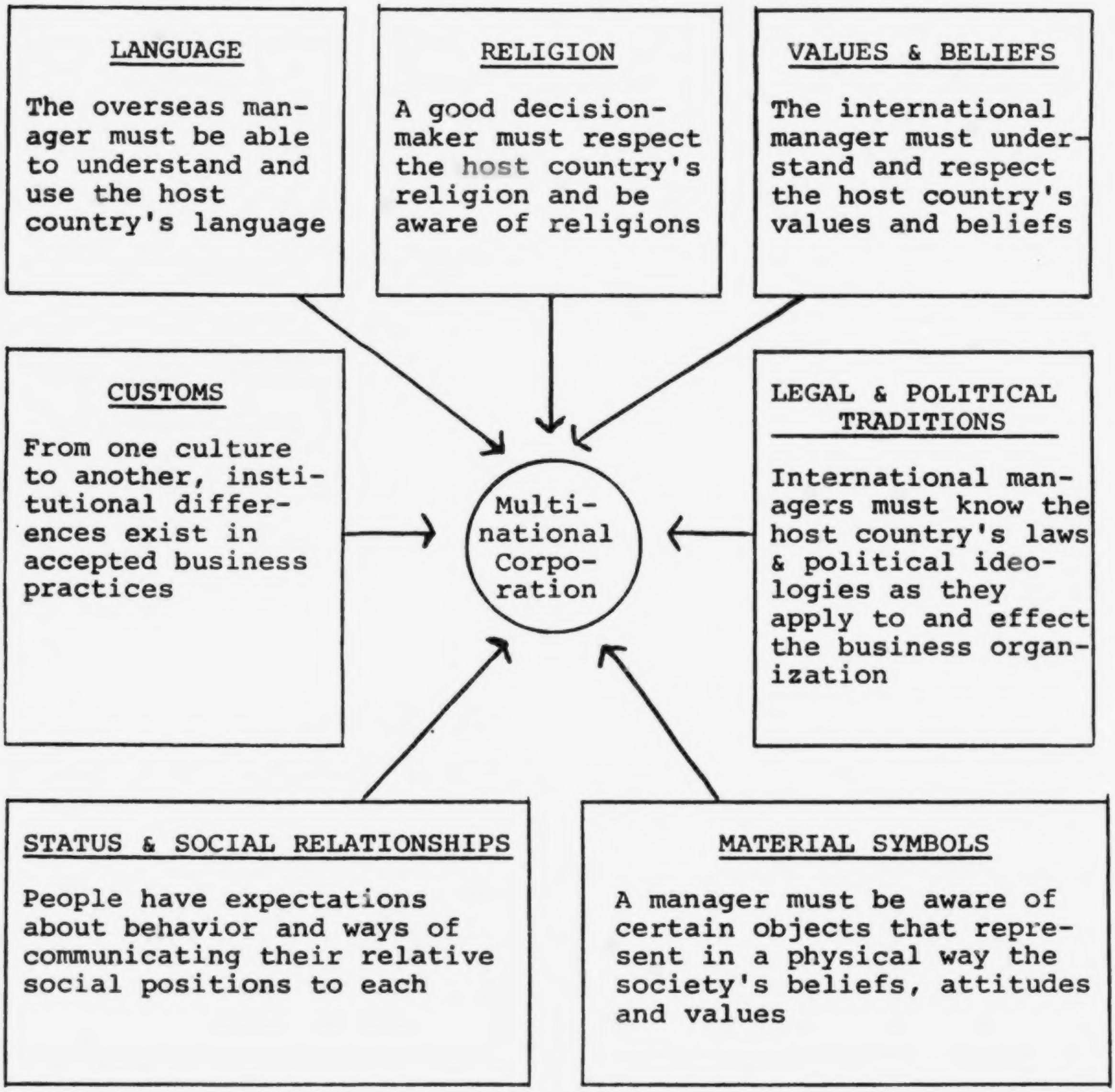
International managers can face many problems in a foreign host country because of cultural differences. A nation's culture is made up of its language, religion, values and beliefs, customs, legal and political traditions, status and social relationships, and material symbols. (See Table 2)

Managers must know the host country's language so that they can communicate with employees, understand and recognize idiomatic interpretations and also show respect for the host country. Overseas workers are insulted when an American manager not knowing their language is rotated in for a one-year tour of duty. Language translation is also a problem in advertising. In West Germany 3-M's slogan "Sticks Like Crazy" becomes "Sticks Foolishly"; General Motors' "Body by Fisher" emerges as "Corpses by Fisher" and in Spain, Chevrolet's Nova did not sell because in Spanish No-Va means doesn't go.

The international manager must also be sensitive to the importance of the host country's religious customs. In some countries, people of different religions do not care to associate with each other. An unaware or unthinking manager who mixes such people will have problems. Depending on their religions, people may place high or low value on material possessions, may gain satisfaction in different ways, or may place different value on the worth of the individual. All these areas are of concern if effective personnel management is to be achieved.

Many American companies have tried to do business in other

Table 2. The Cultural Environment of International Business



LANGUAGE

The overseas manager must be able to understand and use the host country's language

RELIGION

A good decision-maker must respect the host country's religion and be aware of religions

VALUES & BELIEFS

The international manager must understand and respect the host country's values and beliefs

CUSTOMS

From one culture to another, institutional differences exist in accepted business practices

Multinational Corporation

LEGAL & POLITICAL TRADITIONS

International managers must know the host country's laws & political ideologies as they apply to and effect the business organization

STATUS & SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS

People have expectations about behavior and ways of communicating their relative social positions to each

MATERIAL SYMBOLS

A manager must be aware of certain objects that represent in a physical way the society's beliefs, attitudes and values countries without considering the variations in cultural values and beliefs from nation to nation. Companies have and will continue to lose business opportunities because managers have not been sensitive to the social standards, values and beliefs of the people they deal with. Identifying these characteristics will help managers develop new products, see new ways of selling existing products and alter their managerial skills to best utilize and support these employees attitudes.

An international manager is in danger of making many blunders if he is unaware of the host country's customs. Americans occasionally shake hands with the left hand, if the right hand is otherwise occupied. In some Arabic countries that gesture is an extreme insult. In some Moslem countries it is against the law to put your arm around your spouse's shoulders in public; whereas, in Spanish countries the acceptable greeting between men is an embrace. In Northern Europe, the custom is to arrive before the scheduled time of a business appointment. In Eastern countries, however, the appointment may often begin an hour or two after it is scheduled. Since managers cannot and should not change these customs, they must adapt to them.

Legal and political traditions are based on cultural values as each society codifies its strongly held customs into a formal body of law and governmental rule. For example, a bribe may be very illegal at home but only slightly illegal (and very expected) abroad. A manager may choose one decision over another depending on the assessment of the nation's political stability or uncertainly. If the nation has a history of revolutionary governments that take over foreign companies, an American Company would have to foresee a very high return on investment before investing much capital in that nation.

Status relationships and social interaction patterns have considerable impact on many managerial decisions. For example, in some parts of the world, managers may have to modify personnel practices in order to prevent employees of different castes from working together--or worse yet--to keep a lower-caste employer from supervising an employee of higher caste. The current U. S. movement to promote female managers may create problems in the international divisions of multinational corporations. Females are often relegated low status abroad, and a female executive would be unthinkable in some countries.

The last culturally based variation to which these multinational managers must be sensitive is material symbols. A society's material culture includes those things, whether computers or totem poles, that people feel represent themselves. A tractor factory in a foreign country might fail because the farmers don't trust something that is not alive. Some people in lesser developed nations have difficulty understanding and fear industrial equipment and advanced technology. An organization wishing to hire these people must change their orientation from farm to factory and break down their fear of automation.

An international manager needs a conceptual scheme to analyze cultural differences between his native culture and the foreign culture. Any program that is developed to internationalize a curriculum must deal with the cultural as well as the international dimensions and problem solving techniques unique to international businesses. An international program must be designed to expose students to the various dimensions of cultural differences and international business methodology in the following areas:

I. Problem Solving Techniques. Each student must understand the basic concepts in the areas of marketing, management, accounting and finance and the tools for analysis available in each of these disciplines.

II. International Economics. A basic understanding of economics and the differences that exist when we examine the economic systems that are present across the world is essential.

III. Social Institutions and the Legal and Political Traditions. A future multinational manager must understand the business, legal, political and social class natures that influence the behavior of individuals in their host country.

IV. Religious Aspects. Elements such as religion and superstitions have a profound impact on the value and belief system of individuals; therefore, an international business student must become aware of these areas.

V. International Business Dimensions. Students need to integrate international aspects of multinational business with the knowledge of a foreign language and cultural aspects in order to obtain an overall view of the host country and its people.

VI. Customs and Aesthetics. A multinational business manager must be acquainted with the art, folklore, music and drama of a culture.

VII. Language. One needs more than the ability to speak a language. One also needs the competency to recognize idiomatic interpretations. Thus the international manager can not take for granted that he or she is always communicating effectively in another language.

Let us now examine Mount Union College's interdisciplinary major in International Business and how it meets these seven major areas of concern.

I. Problem Solving Techniques.	Semester Hours
Principles of Management	3
Principles of Marketing	3
Corporate Finance I	3
Elementary Accounting I & II	6
	15

These courses are designed to acquaint the student with the current state of technology used to analyze situations which arise in businesses. Students are exposed to a variety of theories and practices currently followed in the areas of finance, accounting, marketing and management. These form a basis of their study in international business.

II. International Economics.

	Semester Hours
Introduction to Economics	3
International Economics	3
Comparative Economic Systems	3
	9

Courses in the international economics area expose the student to a variety of international as well as domestic economic concerns and how they impact decision making on all levels of business management. Students will also develop an appreciation of economic systems different from ours and an understanding of how these systems operate.

III. Social Institutions and the Legal and Political Traditions.

Introduction to World Politics	3
International Institutions	3
Comparative Politics	3
	9

Courses in this area discuss the interrelationships between the political, economic and social systems in various countries. Students will begin to realize the many variations and the degree of interaction that exists between these systems throughout the world.

IV. Religious Aspects.

Contemporary International Concerns	3
Nonwestern Culture	3
	6

Elements such as historical growth and religious concerns of various nationalities are dealt with in courses taken in this area.

	Semester Hours
V. International Business Dimensions	
Seminar in International Business	3
Special Problems (German, French, Spanish)	3
	6

The international Business Dimension is best dealt with in two ways. First, the seminar in International Business deals with the different techniques and systems of analysis used by multinational companies. It discusses differences and similarities and builds on the concepts discussed in the problem solving techniques area by adding the international dimension. The second course, Special Problems, deals with concerns in the foreign country and is taught in the foreign language.

The Customs and Aesthetics and Language Areas are met by the following foreign language courses:

VI. Customs and Aesthetics	
Intro. to Culture (German, French Spanish)	4
	4
VII. Language	
Communicating in (German, French, Spanish)	3
Either Spoken (German, French, Spanish)	4
Or Advanced (German, French, Spanish)	3
	6 or 7

Introduction to Culture exposes the student to the Aesthetic Dimensions of the foreign culture. This is an intermediate level foreign language course. A grammar review is included and ample opportunity for use of the spoken language is provided, but the major emphasis is on studying the culture of the target language. Aspects of culture included in this course are heritage of the foreign culture; daily life patterns; aesthetic, religious, social, and political aspects of the culture; and contemporary influences of the foreign culture in the United States.

The basic culture text, selected at the discretion of the instructor, is supplemented by newspapers and periodicals available in the library and assigned readings on topics selected by the professor and/or students. In-class discussions are related to assigned lessons and based on given sets of questions related to the assigned readings. An oral composition on the topic of the lesson presented by a student volunteer serves as an individual follow-up exercise. Cultural contrast exercises are also used to highlight, compare, and contrast behaviors which occur in the foreign culture. Students role-play a cultural scene then discuss the behavioral point in question. On occasion simulation games are utilized to enhance levels of awareness on how to cope in a foreign community.

In the area of language skills these courses are available to the student: communicating in French/German/Spanish [hereafter Fr/Gn/Sn] and either Advanced Fr/Gn/Sn or Spoken Fr/Gn/Sn. Communicating in Fr/Gn/Sn is an intermediate conversation class which emphasizes communicative competence in the foreign language. In addition to daily assigned activities, students are required to spend an additional one hour per week in the language laboratory working on exercises assigned in the laboratory manual which accompanies the basic text. Class time is divided into two parts:

the first 35 minutes are devoted to teacher-directed discussion or oral activity related to the assigned lesson, and the last 15 minutes are devoted to oral activities prepared by the students and/or grammar review as it relates to the lesson being studied.

Spoken Fr/Gn/Sn is an upper level course conducted entirely in the language. This course emphasizes the contemporary spoken foreign language and allows the student to put into practice his/her knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Each Spanish class, for example, begins with the question: _¿Qué pasa en el mundo_? [What's happening in the world?] This question impells the student to read daily newspapers and to develop a vocabulary which deals with current events. Topics of cultural and contemporary interest serve as the basis for discussions. Student leaders are expected to prepare, guide, and moderate discussions at least twice per semester. Other class activities include pronunciation drills, exercises in problem solving, debates, role-playing, and interviews.

Two final projects are required of the students in the Spoken course: a lengthy, individual oral presentation and a group project. The topic for the individual presentation is selected by the student and must have the instructor's approval. In past years as a group project the Spanish classes have performed short one-act plays and written their own play based on stories they may have read. The most recent "production" was a dramatized interpretation of _Crónica de una muerte anunciada_ by Gabriel García Márquez, Nobel Prize Winner for Literature in 1983.

The student is also expected to spend one-hour per week in the laboratory using assigned tapes which accompany the text used as a drillbook for pronunciation.

Advanced Fr/Gn/Sn concentrates on grammar and composition. This course is an intensive comprehensive course designed to improve written language habits and to develop a sense of style. In addition to assigned daily exercises, students are required to submit five translations from the foreign language into English, five translations from English into the foreign language, and five original compositions on a topic of the student's choice. An attempt is made to tailor these assignments according to each student's interests.

A final written project is also required. This project can be a research paper in the foreign language, an original short story, a translation, or an original project designed and developed by the student. Students who are not foreign language majors are encouraged to select a topic related to their major field of interest.

Finally, in addition to being a part of the International Business Dimension, the Special Problems course is the culminating experience for the interdisciplinary major in business and economics. Designed to integrate the student's knowledge of the foreign language, the target culture, and business, it serves as a complement to the Seminar in International Business. Taught as an individual investigation in special topics, it is conducted in the foreign language, and all assignments are written in the target language.

One of the main objectives of the course is to raise the student's level of awareness to cross-cultural communication. Prior to this point in time, the student has concentrated on language as what people say. In this class students are alerted to non-verbal communication. For this reason a variety of variables in human behavior which can be generalized to the foreign culture are studied. As a culmination exercise for for this objective, the student is required to write an analysis or reaction paper to cross-cultural awareness studies responding to the following points: (1) the specific levels of awareness raised for the student as they relate to cross-cultural communication; (2) how miscommunication might best be resolved; and (3) the importance of knowledge of the "silent" language in communicating with people. Other thoughts and observations are also to be included.

The remainder of the course emphasizes the conduct of business in the foreign culture. First of all, case dialogs between a sales representative and his manager are studied and analyzed. Graded case studies are then prepared for discussion, role-playing, and written exercises. Depending on the interests and objectives of the students, these case studies are developed beyond basic comprehension levels.

Practical exercises in the use of the commercial foreign language are also included. These exercises are intended to furnish those students who are familiar with basic principles of grammar with the fundamentals of a practical, commercial language, especially in the fields of advertising, foreign trade, transportation, banking, and finance.

In addition, this course requires two other projects: one which is a cross-cultural exercise and another which integrates foreign language skills and the student's knowledge of business. The cross-cultural exercise is divided into 5 phases: scouting, access, exploration, interaction, and termination. Each phase takes approximately two weeks and is followed by a discussion exploring problems encountered, concepts discovered, and plans for the following phase.

During the scouting phase, the student is expected to observe a sub-cultural group unfamiliar to him/her without participating in the life of the group. The purpose of this observation period is to see how people in this group relate to one another and to outsiders and to come up with a plan for gaining access to the group based on the student's observations.

During the access phase the student is expected to gain access to the host culture in an acceptable way. The goals of the exploration phase are to discover the interests, concerns, and concepts of the host community. At this time students are encouraged to read Edward T. Hall's Silent Language, Chapters V and VI, and advised to "put themselves in the other guy's shoes."

The next phase is the interaction phase. During this phase the student is expected to communicate and interact with the host culture. Values, beliefs, attitudes, patterns of authority, etc., are to be explored.

The final phase is the termination phase. During this period the student has to inform his host culture that he/she would not be seeing them anymore. During this stage, the student is forced to concentrate on unanticipated behavior patterns because of the ensuing separation.

Following the final discussion the student is required to write a paper summarizing the whole process and evaluating the experience in terms of its value for real communication.

The second project is the preparation of a report by the student. In this report the student is expected to present a problem found in his area of interest in the business world, provide background information of the problem, discuss the importance of the problem to his area of business, suggest possible solutions or remedies to the problem, select a solution, discuss the rationale for selecting this solution, describe in detail its implementation, and project results or conclusions. The report is expected to be presented in a format appropriate to that which a business executive would expect from his employee.

Such a program as just described could be a very low cost program, especially if the college or university already offers degrees in business administration, foreign languages and the liberal arts. The changing position of the United States in the global environment coupled with the past failure of academic institutions to emphasize international business warrants that serious consideration be given to the establishment of international business programs.

NOTES

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TEACHING MARKETING IN TODAY'S WORLD

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Today we live in an age of change. Advancing technology is vastly altering our environment and the traditional markets and activities of industry. The marketing function is highly sensitive and adaptive to these radical changes. Marketing is a dynamic force in today's society, through which business enterprise is integrated productively with society's purposes and values.

Our presentation provides bilingual insights into some phases of marketing which has proven beneficial in teaching a business Spanish class.

Our research attempts to increase the student's understanding of marketing. First, we present marketing concepts and a classification. Second, we analyze the U.S. Hispanic market, a subject of interest as more marketers recognize its size and relatively high growth rate, which now numbers about 22 million people and had estimated add expenditures of $224 million dollars.[1]

Third, we include CAI material specifically developed for this presentation, which includes two things: A presentation of marketing terms and case histories with drill and practices.

The material has been presented in existing courses at both Youngstown State University in Ohio and at Geneva College in Pennsylvania. In teaching a commercial Spanish course, the authors deal with the foreign language student as a potential business person. The article tries to provide useful and relevant information and also it hopes to give an understanding of the field of Marketing as it is related to a business course in Spanish.

Our research focuses mainly on Spanish language marketing for domestic and international clients. The Hispanic market has many potential consumers, more spendable income, and more market impact than ever thought possible. When it comes to Hispanic marketing, one is not dealing simply with a language; one is dealing with a culture.[2]

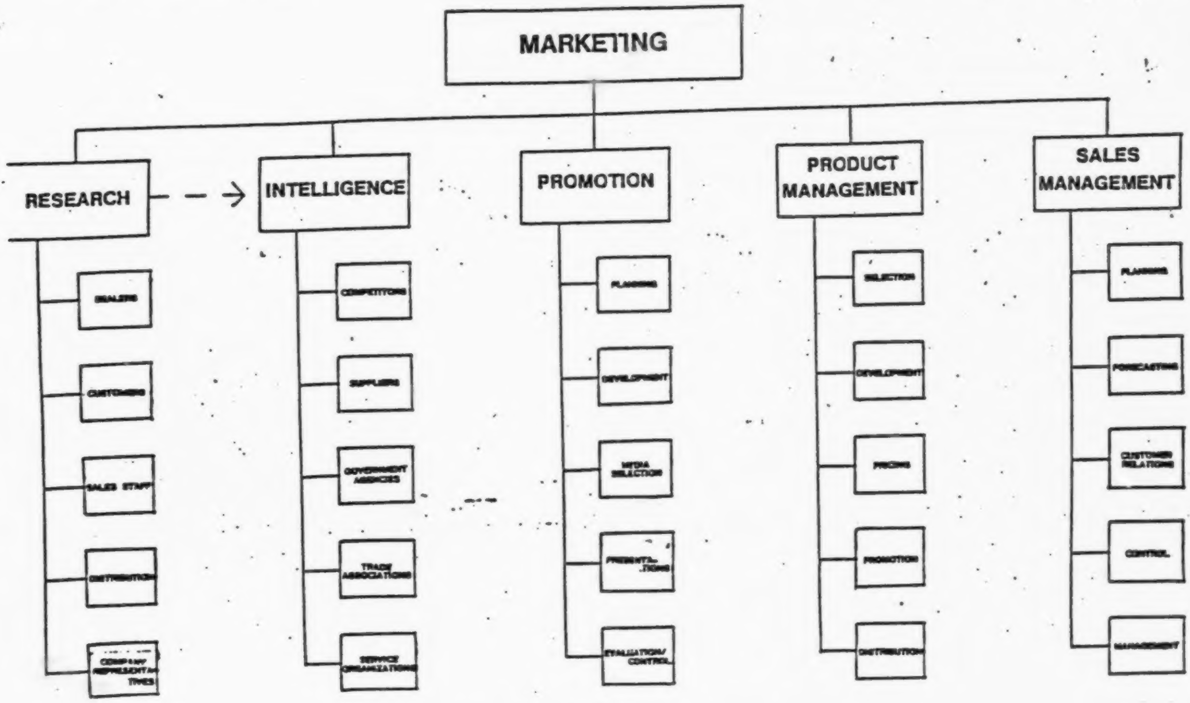
The Spanish-speaking market comprises both international and the different Hispanic ethnic groups within our society. International marketing refers to the marketing of products and services in more than one country, and there is little doubt that international marketing will advance even more rapidly in the future.[3]

No culture is monolithic and contains within one or more subcultures like the Hispanic culture. Nicandro F. Juarez, of the firm Juarez and Associates, Inc. of Los Angeles, believes that Hispanics comprise a segmented market: "the terms Hispanic and Latino impart a false aura of homogeneity, but some demographic characteristics vary widely between groups." He continues analyzing some of them: income, median age, language preference and others.[4]

The marketer in the United States is extremely interested in these groups, as they often form the basis for distinct market segments which either represent market potential for a specific product in spite of the dominant norms or can act as change agents within their own culture or provide some index of the direction of change within a country.

Our article does not pretend to cover completely the important field of Marketing. However it does provide relevant knowledge about this area in Spanish for both business and nonbusiness persons. First, let us examine the concept of Marketing. This field is extremely complex and is no longer considered just a branch of Business Administration. Marketing covers, besides promotion and advertising, the research of new concepts, the analysis of information found through research, and the management of products and sales.

The Marketing concept is broken down into five phases: research, intelligence, promotion, product management and sales management.· Let us see the diagram:


MARKETING
RESEARCH
INTELLIGENCE
PROMOTION
PRODUCT MANAGEMENT
SALES MANAGEMENT
DEALERS
CUSTOMERS
SALES STAFF
DISTRIBUTION
COMPANY REPRESENTATIVES
COMPETITORS
SUPPLIERS
GOVERNMENT AGENCIES
TRADE ASSOCIATIONS
SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS
PLANNING
DEVELOPMENT
MEDIA SELECTION
PRESENTATIONS
EVALUATION/ CONTROL
SELECTION
DEVELOPMENT
PRICING
PROMOTION
DISTRIBUTION
PLANNING
FORECASTING
CUSTOMER RELATIONS
CONTROL
MANAGEMENT

One could not be concerned with the management of business enterprises without a deep and direct concern with marketing. Marketing plays a significant role in society: it is a diverse, complex and rapidly changing field. The basis of marketing is the exchange notion and develops out of the fundamental idea that most human behavior is a purposeful quest for want satisfaction.

Marketing is a broad economic subject and has a significant impact on society at large. The marketing concept is the basis of considerable theory and the foundation of many marketing strategies and decisions.[5]

In the United States, the Hispanic market demonstrates the changing cultural values of the American society. Today's marketing must develop a broadened marketing concept which should include the growing Hispanic population. Statistics show that Hispanics constitute the second subculture in the United States. Forecasts predict that they will outnumber blacks before the year 2,000.[6]

International marketing deals with a diversity of unfamiliar problems and must supply a variety of strategies necessary to cope with the different levels of uncertainty encountered in foreign markets.

International research, like domestic research, is done to design effective advertising, the difference is language and culture. When marketers examine the Spanish-speaking countries in terms of the proposed products or services, their task should be to adjust marketing strategies and plans to the needs of the culture in which they plan to operate. A thorough understanding of the language and culture of the target market is necessary. That is why in Latin America, Joshua Libresco declares, "communication is more important than almost anywhere in the world.[7]

A sound marketing approach to Hispanics is based on knowing something about their cultural values. Some marketers believe that language and cultural assimilation will absorb Hispanics into the mainstream but Nicandro Juarez says, "the demographic reality probably will be different.. even when they are born here."[8]

In marketing, existing consumer attitudes determine promotional strategies. The marketer must determine desires and offers products and services to satisfy them. How can marketing principles help understand the important Hispanic market? By designing programs with an awareness of cultural values and attitudes, and by letting the desires, needs and reasonable beliefs of the audience determine what is offered, rather than attempt the reverse.

One of the basic cross-cultural differences between Hispanics and other cultures found by Bellenger and Valencia was that Hispanics were "more likely to shop at smaller stores and dislike impersonal stores."[9]

Let us analyze one of the basic tenets of the American work ethic: success equates money. For example, the Spanish-speaking grocer in the New York area, believes that being one's own boss in a familiar neighborhood is more important than money. Pace University economist, Dr. Philip Young, describes their stores: "they sell anything and everything, including Latin specialties (plantain, yams, salted codfish), sandwiches, hardware and toys. Owners greet their customers by name ... Dominicans, Cubans and Puerto Ricans stock their stores with what customers want rather than specializing in merchandise that might strenghten profits. They buy and sell on credit." Dr. Young points out: "For Hispanics, the store is the end, the goal."[10]

The Hispanic supermarket is a warm, friendly place in or near Hispanic neighborhoods, whose owner is after a different kind of success.

An awareness of cultural differences is a pre-requisite to successful marketing operations. The last section of our presentation applies marketing theories to actual marketing situations. Six case histories illustrate the different phases of marketing, to help recognize and understand marketing in action. The cases should help to develop better written and oral communication skills.

Markets are dynamic, only in response to economic change, but also in response to changes in other aspects of the culture as well. Marketers must adjust to these current and anticipated changes in order to predict the dimensions and scope of future market opportunities.

Market research is beginning to see patterns in the statistics about Hispanics in the 80's. Hispanics in the United States now number about 22 million (including about 7.4 million "undocumented" aliens.) They are the second largest minority and by the end of the decade, will be the largest minority in the Country. Cheryl Rusell, research editor of American Demographics sees a continued boom in Hispanic markets, and estimates that they "already have $30 billion in consumer spending power." Their growth, strong family beliefs, and language, make Hispanic groups unique. Rusell adds: "with the potential to grow 40 percent in a decade, with rising education, job status, and income, Hispanics will hold the attention of American businesses for years to come."[11]

Notes

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[3] Philip R. Cateora, International Marketing, 5th ed. (Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1983).

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[7] Joshua Libresco, "How to do effective International Marketing Research," Advertising World (December, 1984), pp. 28.

[8] Juarez, p. 5.

[9] Danny N. Bellenger and Humberto Valencia, "Understanding the Hispanic Market," Business Horizons (May-June, 1982), p. 49.

[10] Charlotte Curtiss, "Hard work vs. success," New York Times (March 19, 1985), c12.

[11] Russell, p. 25.

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PREFACE

El espaÑol en el mundo de los negocios is designed to provide intermediate and advanced students of Spanish with an interesting introduction to business. This program hopes to bring to life the fascinating process of the world of business.

This program is about Spanish in the business world. It has been researched, developed, prepared, and designed to help the student who must live and earn a living in a world influenced by Spanish.

OBJECTIVES

A business Spanish course usually provides students with their first opportunity to examine the nature and characteristics of business as it relates to a foreign language.

Some of the educational objectives that guided the authors were:

-To presente relevant knowledge about different aspects of the business world.

-To provide a useful array of business writing, from simple business forms to complex proposals and translations.

-To increase the student's knowledge in the fundamentals of grammar and punctuation.

-To introduce clear and concise definitions of business terms.

CASO (1)

Orlando y Marisela Martínez, ambos abogados jovenes y alrededor de treinta aÑos han decidido abrir una pequeÑa tienda de artefactos mexicanos en un barrio de clase media en la ciudad de Dallas. Planean emplear personal a tiempo completo y ayudar ellos mismos durante el fin de semana.

Antes de comenzar este negocio les gustaría investigar el mercado.

Seleccionar la respuesta más appropriada:

1. A los Martínez les gustaría investigar el mercado

   a. hablando con sus amigos
   b. leyendo los periódicos
   c. empleando una encuesta

2. La investigación de acuerdo a los Martínez incluye

   a. su nueva idea
   b. los productos que ellos proveen al consumidor
   c. a y b

3. El consejero de la firma de mercadeo les explica a los Martínez que el propósito de recoger la información es para determinar

   a. sus clientes futuros
   b. que alternativas seran las mejores para obtener los objetivos
   c. su decisión final

4. Los Martínez aprenden que los métodos de recoger datos son

   a. preguntas, observación, encuestas, cuestionarios, y experimentos
   b. preguntas, entrevistas telefónicas y estratégicas del mercado.
   c. preguntas, observación y encuestas.

5. El último paso en el proceso del análisis del mercado para los Martínez es:

   a. exploración de la información.
   b. análisis e interpretación de los datos.
   c. preparación del reporte de la investigación.

CASO (2)

Una pequeña compañía de petroquímicos agrícolas, PEMIX, desea abrir una sucursal en Jalisco, México. La organización piensa que después de analizar la información obtenida a través de la investigacion del mercado, la compañía podrá comenzar sus operaciones.

CIERTO O FALSO

___1. La compañía debe obtener presupuestos para el costo del proyecto.

___2. La información obtenida debe ser enviada al departamento de ventas.

___3. Los beneficios del proyecto justifican los gastos.

___4. PEMIX debe trabajar y tener una buena relación con las agencias del gobierno mexicano.

___5. PEMIX no tiene que ajustar su estrategia mercantil a las necesidades de la cultura mexicana.

CASO (3)

Una conocida compañía del medioeste de los Estados Unidos, con una amplia lista de correos de programas de computadoras, desea iniciar una promocion de su nueva linea de productos, que identifica importantes segmentos del mercado de los grupos hispánicos en los Estados Unidos. Una encuesta del mercado indica que la publicidad iniciada por los mismos clientes y las reseñas del producto en revistas especializadas en computadoras son factores decisivos cuando los clientes deciden comprar los programas de computadoras.

1. Indicar los cincos pasos en el proceso de promoción:

2. Si una reseña establece la reputación de un programa de computadoras en el mercado, ¿Qué medios informativos una compañía debe seleccionar?

3. ¿Que debe una compañía revisar con respecto a lo que los reseñadores han escrito sobre ellos?

4. La función del mercado, a través de la cual se controla la comunicación entre el vendedor y el posible cliente.

5. Una encuesta indica que los hispanos leen menos periódicos y revistas que otros grupos de la sociedad, pero como promedio miran mas la televisión. ¿Qué revistas se podrían considerar una buena selección en la publicidad de los clientes hispanos?

CASO (4)

Lea los siguientes pronunciamientos y seleccione uno de los siguientes números:

1. Selección
2. Desarrollo
3. Precio
4. Promoción (ventas)
5. Distribución

____1. La administración de la subsidiaria de una importante compaÑía de frutas en Costa Rica desea saber como mejor distribuir los productos de la compaÑía.

____2. Los oficiales de una recién formada corporación metalúrgica en la Argentina desean obtener información sobre nueva maquinaria para su planta.

____3. Una importante compaÑía en Barcelona desea sumitir una solicitud de crédito a un banco internacional, para obtener fondos para revisar y mejorar un producto en existencia.

____4. Una compaÑía alimenticia quiere presentar una línea de comidas "mexicanas" congeladas y quiere que el producto incluya el valor, el costo y la competencia.

____5. Una pequena compaÑía, que tiene su oficina central en el estado de Illinois en los Estados Unidos, quiere reclutar personal de ventas familiarizado con la cultura hispana para cubrir el área geográfica de Chicago que tiene una gran concentración de población hispana.

CASO (5)

Una bodega en East Lansing, Michigan, con una línea de productos étnicos quiere examinar el volumen de las ventas de varios artículos que no son comestibles, como medicinas, vitaminas, revistas en español, etc) y también desea determinar posibles ventas. Seleccione una de las funciones apropiadas de la administración de ventas.

1. Planificación
2. Pronóstico
3. Relaciones con los clientes
4. Control
5. Administración

1. ____________________ es esencial en un comercio pequeño.

2. Una de las funciones es evaluar la actuación de las ventas _______________

3. ___________ es un análisis de las estadísticas de las ventas.

4. ___________ de las ventas gira alrededor de controlar los gastos.

5. Esta funcion estudia las necesidades de los clientes ______________________

STATE AND FEDERAL INITIATIVE IN SUPPORT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

By

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Everyone has their favorite "Good news, bad news" story. Mine is the one about the two good ole boys sitting around the Village Square discussing whether or not there is baseball in heaven.

Let me suggest the bad news. first. In assessing a prognosis for future national policies, one might conclude that you need a crystal ball that registers only the single word - deficit (with a capital D). The danger is that foreign languages, international studies, exchanges, and, indeed, education itself, will get lost in the current obsession of policy-makers with the deficit and budget reductions. The challenge that languages face in the next few years is that they may once again be ignored. In the public mind and in the policy process, the MX may misplace the M.A.; the deficit discredit the doctorate; and the economy enervate education. Whether the news is good or bad depends on how this challenge is addressed and whether recent successes can be maintained.

The good news is that the immediate public policy context in which we are functioning can still be characterized as "guardedly optimistic." Some exciting things have happened with regard to education in general and language studies in particular. The last four years have produced increased media attention; growing public support; and most importantly, professional unity and organization. These factors have translated into improved and new policies; increased legislation; and major policy changes in the states.

First, there has been a general revival in language study. Enrollments are up considerably. For example, the State of Virginia has more students studying foreign languages now than at any time since World War II. The Modern Language Association reports that higher education enrollments have increased in all languages except Hebrew, Portuguese, and the classics. Chinese and Japanese continue to grow like topsey, and Russian, German, French, Italian and Spanish have made notable gains. Seventy colleges and universities, last year, reinstituted language requirements for admission or graduation (and that will have a trickle-down effect.)

Secondly, the language profession has moved to encourage communicative competence and develop proficiency-based standards. ACTFL and ETS have already put in place a series of oral proficiency tests based on a revised version of the FSI scale for the commonly taught languages. These tests allow us to tell students with some exactitude, what we can and cannot do, and what they have or have not done. Given Washington's penchant of jargon, the policy community has begun to talk in terms of the need for a "Common Metric" in language study. (I suppose this will allow us to "interface" in a more synergistic fashion.)

Third, according to the former Secretary of Education, 165 State-level task forces have been created to examine education in all fifty states. Most of these task forces address foreign languages. Eleven states have already introduced legislation to upgrade language requirements. In Florida, for example, the state is providing incentive funds for foreign languages in the elementary schools, awards for outstanding high school students, student performance standards, and requirements for admission to the state universities. New York is leading the way in adopting an action plan for global education. State aid will be available to school districts based on foreign language enrollments, all candidates for a regents diploma must pass a proficiency examination, and, by 1992, all students must have studied a foreign language by grade 9. To some, this suggests that the "new federalism" is working. And it may be. The danger we must guard against in this congress is that reduced federal funding and support would make these state programs more image than substance.

Nationally, the stage has been set for improved language study and facilities by over three dozen national commission and taskforce reports. The numbers vary depending upon who you talk to. The New York Times says there are 26; the former Secretary of Education talked about over one hundred; and a friend of ours in Congress (and we all know they are not given to hyperbole) speaks of hundreds. Almost all of the ones we have identified either implicitly or explicitly address the issue of global awareness and language study.

These studies range from A Nation at Risk, the report of The National Commission on Excellence in Education, which concluded that "we have been committing an act of unthinking, unilateral, educational disarmament;" to the Carnegie Foundation study which declares, "today's curriculum barely reflects the global view," to the new Secretary of Education, William Bennett's study which insists that "demonstrable proficiency in a foreign language and the ability to view that language is an avenue to another culture" is essential to a college education;" to the 436 page, Beyond Growth: The Next Stage in Language Area Studies conducted for the Department of Defense.

From a policy perspective, there can be little doubt that these reports, the state activities and the increase in public attention have assisted in creating a positive mood and a genuine sense of urgency among policy-makers toward strengthening education and language study. And this prompted a number of very important legislative initiatives in the last congress.

Last year, an election year, the appropriation for education was $17.6 billion, a $2 billion increase over by 84.

For the second year in a row, international education and foreign language programs were zero founded in the budget request, and, for the second year in a row, Congress responded with an increase to $32.05 Million and two new programs - The Soviet and East European Research and Training Program and the Congress-Bundestag Exchange Program - were funded at $4.8 Million and $2.5 Million respectively.

In addition to increased funding, some very significant new programs also came out of the ninety-eight Congress. The Library Services and Construction Act amendments included a new Title V providing grants of up to $15,000 to State and Local public libraries to purchase foreign language materials and a new Title VI providing grants of up to $25,000 to public libraries for literacy programs.

Also, the Department of Defense Authorization Bill created a new U.S. Institute of Peace actually funded at $4 Million, to provide fellowships to individuals and grants to universities and research groups to promote the study of international diplomacy and conflict resolution.

Finally, Public Law 98-377, The Education and Economic Security Act, was signed by the President on August 11. The final statute looks very different from the small, $80 Million Math/Science bill that started out in the House initially. The law now contains eigth titles, including one on equal access for religious groups and one on asbestos hazard abatement. While Title VI, Excellence in Education Programs, and Title VII, Magnet School Assistance, are important to us, the heart of the bill is Title II, which provides assistance for teacher training and instruction in Math, Science, Computer training and Foreign Languages. The continuing resolution actually contained $100 Million for this title for this year and the Education Department is currently moving to create the grant procedures to have the money in the field by June.

Languages are a stepchild in this legislation, but that's Okay. Originally they weren't in it at all. Essentially, at the State and Local level, Foreign Language instruction and computer learning get what's left over after the schools have trained sufficient Math and Science teachers. (In truth, this means there will be little or no real funding for languages in the schools.)

At the post-secondary level, "critical" foreign languages compete with math and science to create cooperative programs for improving student performance. Finally, under the Secretary's discretionary programs, there are specific critical foreign language grants and grants for nationally significant projects.

Of equal importance is what didn't happen in the 98th Congress. A new bill to provide scholarships for undergraduates from developing countries was introduced at the eleventh hour.

It had support from both the majority leader and the minority leader in the House and bipartisan support in the Senate, so it almost slipped through. In the end, its short life was extinguished in a conference committee.

The American Defense Education Act, (son of NDEA), with its very strong provisions for foreign language education came to the floor of the House in the final days. When it began to attract every election year issue from school prayer to busing to animal safety, it was tabled by its friends rather than risk its future.

As many of you know, the Foreign Language for National Security Act, providing $50 Million for languages at all educational levels, passed the House last February with a better than two to one margin. Despite our best efforts, this bill languished in the Senate Subcommittee for seven months and finally gave up the ghost.

I mention these three bills because some version of all of them will come up again in the 99th Congress, and because they are all bills to which the language community is seriously committed. In fact, the idea has already been reintroduced as S.117 and H.R. 650 to provide grants to local education agencies and for teacher training in Math, Science and Foreign Languages. Unlike the Education for Economic Security Act, in this bill languages are an equal with Math and Science. The scholarship program for developing countries has also been reintroduced as S. 542 and H.R. 1340, and last week it was rolled into broader legislation to authorize funds for the State Department. And it is my understanding, that the Foreign Language Assistance for National Security Act will be re-introduced shortly. The caveat is, while they have been re-introduced in the 99th Congress, any new spending bill, even one as modest as the Foreign Language bill, is going to encounter very rough sledding.

The mood of the 99th Congress is unquestionably one of fiscal restraint. Financial issues such as the deficit, defense spending and tax simplification are likely to dominate the entire life of this congress. Illustrative of this, the Administration's FY86 budget officially went to Congress in February and has pretty well tied that August body in knots ever since. When the budget was introduced, we identified 34 areas of concern to languages and international education.

The premier program of concern to languages, Title VI, International Education and Foreign Language Studies, has once again been zero funded, as have the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, Library Services (not just the new titles including languages, but the entire package of federal assistance to public libraries) and the U.S. Institute of Peace. Additionally, the National Endowment for the Humanities, a major supporter of language research, would have its budget reduced by $13 Million.

Congressman Panetta and Senator Dodd have introduced a joint resolution (H. Cong. Res. 104 and S. Con. Res. 35), similar to one they introduced last year, indicating it is the sense of the Congress that Foreign Language and International Studies funding should not be reduced. It is indicative of the mood of this congress, however, that last year's resolution said that programs should not be reduced, but should be increased. This year's resolution says nothing about increases.

For Title VI, at least, the two previous attempts at eliminating that program did actually produce slight funding increases. Fipse also survived one attempt at elimination. The fate of the U.S. Institute of Peace, however, should be very much in doubt. This is not to suggest that any of these programs are secure. A fourteen seat shift in the House favoring the Administration; the loss of 23 representatives (Republicans and Democrats) who voted for the Foreign Language bill last year; and a general mood that the budget must be reduced, makes the future of any of these programs uncertain.

On the positive side of the ledger, the Administration has requested continued funding at $100 Million for fiscal year 1986, for Title II of the Education for Economic Security Act, although excellence in Education and Magnet School assistance will be eliminated. Exchanges are to receive a $28 Million increase. Humphrey fellows, private sector programs and the Congress-Bundestag Exchange Program all receive slight increases. This is consistent with the Pell amendment passed in 1982 insisting that exchanges be doubled over the next four years. So as we approach the end of the funding cycle in 1986, we can anticipate a leveling off in funding for exchanges in the second year of the 99th Congress, if not sooner, since a number of senators are nervous about reducing or eliminating some education programs while increasing exchanges by 25 percent.

We can also anticipate that the budget debate will pretty well occupy Congress' attention for the next few months. After that, they may begin to seriously address reauthorizaiton of the Higher Education Act which expires this year, although there is an automatic extension through next year. Consequently, Title VI, International Education and Foreign Languages, along with the rest of the Higher Education Act, must be addressed in the 99th Congress and I would not be surprised to see this as the only major education issue addressed by this congress. This legislation is particularly important to this audience in that it is all that is left of the old NDEA provisions for Language and International studies, and part B of this legislation provides funds for International Business study.

A number of members of Congress have begun to draft their proposals for Title VI; Professos Lambert's Subcommittee of the National Advisory Board has held hearings and drafted its proposals; a taskforce exists in the Higher Education community which has met a number of times and has its suggestions pretty well in place; and the language profession has offered its suggestions to the Lambert subcommittee, interested legislators, and anyone else who will listen. All of these sources appear to be in agreement in recommending that the importance of language study be strengthened in this legislation. In fact, it appears that we will all recommend the creation of language institutes as a new provision in Title VI. My sense is that we have our act pretty well together on Title VI, and while we may have some disagreements, we are not so discordant as to have Congress decide "There they go again" and proceed to make decisions for us. Also, with regard to the total reauthorization package, Title V, Teacher Training, is quite important as well. Given the Language Profession's concern with teacher shortages, proficiency standards and some real questions about quality raised by the shortages, we will be very concerned that any new provisions for teacher training include options for quality pre-service and in-service language programs.

Finally, while JNCL has a major commitment to the foreign language bill and the ADEA, it may also be wise to look at ways to improve legislation already in place. New legislation that will have the greatest chance of becoming public law in the ninety-ninth Congress will be legislation without price tags such as Congressman Panetts's Bureau of Language Services Bill, combining and upgrading the translation and interpretation services already in existence, or Senator Simon's amendment to the U.S. Tax-code providing extra points on the civil service exam for individuals with language skills. In truth, I anticipate that the major improvements in the next two years will come in the States. If we can protect the programs created or upgraded by the ninety-eightth Congress; preserve language and exchange funding at current levels; get the Higher Education Act reauthorized with a strong Title VI; and keep the current favorable public mood toward language study alive, we will have done very well in the policy arena. Our challenge is to avoid being relegated to a back burner, and if we stay on a front burner, to be sure it's turned on.

THE ROLE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TRAINING IN INTERNATIONALIZING THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM

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THE ROLE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TRAINING IN INTERNATIONALIZING THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM

A frequent discussion topic among business school faculty in recent years has been the internationalization of their curriculum. This new found interest in international business perspectives, area studies, and global education can be explained by several factors. Clearly the faculty are responding to evolving business developments and environmental conditions, but they are also reacting to curricular standards and requirements established by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). Recently, language educators have also begun to explore the questions associated with internationalizing the business school curriculum. As an example, the National Council on Foreign Languages and International Studies has announced a number of research and demonstration projects relating to internationalization.

Why Internationalization?

There is surprisingly little disagreement that the time is right to explore ways to enrich the coverage of international issues in the business curriculum. Economic developments reported in the media repeatedly remind us that the nationalistic boundaries of trade continue to diminish. One indication of this is the tremendous surge in American direct investment abroad in the past twenty years, which is even more impressive when one also considers the total assets of foreign affiliates of U.S. multinationals. (Heller, 1980, p. 47) More recently, there has been a spectacular jump in foreign investment within our borders.

Even in the case of the multinational firm, new communications technologies have made it possible to involve the parent organization and its U.S. based personnel more intimately in the product development and marketing decisions of its overseas subsidiaries. (Dotlich, 1982, p. 26) While this may in time reduce the need for expatriate managers, it actually increases the need for international awareness among a broader spectrum of managers and professionals, including those working within our borders.

However looking only at the multinational firm understates both the extensiveness of the movement toward a world market place and in turn, the need for an internationally relevant business curriculum. When the focus of our examination is expanded to include domestic business organizations which make use of foreign suppliers, export goods or services for sale or resale in foreign markets, or compete with foreign producers in the domestic marketplace it becomes clear that we are really in the midst of a dramatic global integration of the economy.

Regardless of the specific manner in which a firm enters the global marketplace, a persuasive argument can be made the firms competing in this arena have a special need for international competence as well as "cultural sensitivity and adjustment." (Robock and Simmonds, 1983, p. 405) It is critical that managers and technical staff possess international awareness and skills as well as appropriate personal attributes. Because few businesspeople were exposed to internationally oriented college course work or foreign language training, and few have had international work experience, American employers enter the competitive fray at a distinct disadvantage. As stated by one observer: "American multinational organizations face the difficult reality that our work force lacks international or intercultural competence." (Copeland, 1984, p. 23)

In the case of Americans placed in management positions abroad, the need to function effectively in a foreign environment is confounded by the extensive burdens which go along with such assignments. Richard Robinson notes that the overseas manager is expected to simultaneously fulfill a diverse set of roles: "(1) representative of the parent firm, (2) manager of a local firm, (3) resident of the local community, (4) citizen of the host state..., (5) member of a profession, not to mention (6) member of a family and all that implies." (Robinson, 1984, p. 117) The scope and complexity of these roles effectively blunts the argument that a manager is sent abroad solely to apply generic management skills. One cannot succeed by "subcontracting" to others the need for international and intercultural awareness.

Neither is the need to function in the foreign marketplace restricted to corporate managers. As Christopher Korth points out, there are also large numbers of individuals with particular functional areas of competence who are sent abroad. (Korth, 1985, p. 442) As is the case with senior managers, not only are these individuals expected to do more than use their technical skills, but their expertise must be applied in a different environmental context.

Finally, as has already been noted, the need for international awareness and competence is not restricted to those organizations with foreign operations. Indeed, the rise of international competition has not only extended the need for global competence across a wide range of domestic business organizations, but has also interspersed such needs throughout the organizational hierarchy.

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Impact on the Business Curriculum

The AACSB, the primary accrediting agency for U.S. schools of business, has established the goal that the curriculum should prepare the student for "imaginative and responsible citizenship and leadership roles in business and society -- domestic and worldwide." (AACSB, 1984, p. 28) However, the guidelines do not detail the specific content or approach to meeting this goal: "There is no intention that any single approach is required to satisfy the worldwide dimension of the Curriculum Standard, but every student should be exposed to the international dimension through one or more elements of the curriculum." (AACSB, p. 28)

There seems to be agreement that this requirement involves the need for both business specific knowledge and broadly based awareness of other countries and people. (Bonaparte, 1985, p. 12; Lanier, 1979, p. 163; Robock & Simmonds, p. 405) Specific personal and societal characteristics which could be explored in an international context include: heritage, attitudes, religion, sensitivities, politics, economics, legal framework, language, as well as attitudes toward work, achievement, authority, social stability and change.

As a result of the absence of direction from the AACSB, a wide range of curricular reactions to the mandate for worldwide coverage have emerged or are being considered. In many situations the response has been to integrate an international component into existing business courses. Other schools have moved to require a separate international course or sequence of courses.

Yet others have taken the additional step of combining one of these approaches with a "menu" of required courses offered by other departments. The "menu" may incorporate a diverse set of options to allow students to opt for exposure to particular subject or geographic areas.[1] The combination of approaches embodied by internationalizing existing required courses in business as well as requiring that students select internationally relevant courses in their nonbusiness coursework is premised on the assumption that educational breadth is essential. It also presumes that the needs of students will vary depending on the nature of their academic program as well as the interests, career objectives, and perhaps the aptitudes of the student. This approach supports what Richard Lambert has termed a diffusive goal, that is, "diffusing international materials as widely as possible throughout the curriculum." (Lambert, 1980, p. 156)

Regardless of the approach toward internationalization that business schools have selected or are contemplating, it is apparent that virtually no consideration has been given to foreign language preparation or training.

The Role of Language Training in the Internationalization of the Business Curriculum

There are many explanations for the omission of foreign language requirements or options in the business curriculum, but the underlying rationale most typically is that there are limits to the number of credits required in a degree program and that language skills are simply not necessary for the typical business graduate. Some have pointed out that few graduates will ever have foreign assignments which would capitalize on fluency in another language. (Lambert, p. 159) Others have argued that acquiring proficiency in a particular language may actually hinder their career development. (Terpstra, 1978, p. 20) Yet another position is that in many ways American businesses are better off using bilingual foreign nationals to do their work abroad: there is "little evidence that foreign language capacity and international studies expertise are pluses [for Americans] even when combined with accounting, financial, or marketing skills." (Hayden, 1980, p. 146.)

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[1] An example of such a program is provided in Appendix I.

Although the positions described above should not be dismissed out of hand, we believe that a strong case can be made for the inclusion of a foreign language training option in the business curriculum. The business community, in particular, has often been taken to task for its lack of awareness and concern for the folkways and language of other peoples. John Naisbitt, in his recent bestseller Megatrends, asserts that we are in an era of "renaissance in cultural and linguistic assertiveness." He continues, "(f)or Americans, it is self-evident that this is the time to learn another language -- and learn it well. (Naisbitt, 1984, p. 78) Even where foreign language skills are not absolutely necessary, they clearly are beneficial and desirable.

As was described earlier in this paper, few firms are truly independent of the international marketplace (contact may be through international operations, foreign suppliers, exports, imports, or competition in domestic markets with foreign producers). Those who assert that language training is unnecessary because few business graduates will be sent abroad by their employers seriously underestimate the extent to which we are part of a global economy.

The case for expatriate managers having fluency in the language of the host country is advanced by practitioners and academics alike. A study of Western European managers found almost uniform support for the premise that, in addition to being attuned to local customs and history, expatriate managers should possess a "high proficiency in both the verbal and nonverbal language of the host country." (Zeira, 1979, p. 72) Studies conducted with American organizations have also endorsed the need for expatriates to acquire language skills, although American managers tended to rate this as being somewhat less critical than do their Western European counterparts. (Robinson, 1983, p. 312) Similar research findings are also reported by Baker (1984). The assumption that language is a critical need is also endorsed by the personnel selection criteria typically used by business organizations in making overseas assignments. (Robinson, p. 130; Heller, p. 48; Hayden, p. 147)

Many of the characteristics and traits that are considered essential for the expatriate manager are equally apropos for the domestic manager or technician who has foreign business contacts or is making decisions about operations and sales in foreign countries. It is possible to delegate the responsibility for conversing or negotiating as well as the translation of written documents, but with both the interaction process becomes more impersonal and can involve some loss of control. Quite obviously, where direct communications are involved, language skills are desirable. In any case, as one author notes, "the gesture of attempting to use another language often goes a long way in reducing the image of the insensitive

American " (Dotlich, pp. 30-31).

Another desirable characteristic for both expatriates and personnel based within this country is the need for cultural empathy. This trait is defined by Kirpalani as the "curiosity and interest...required to comprehend fully another people and area" (Kirpalani, 1984, p. 105). Another commentator describes such sensitivity as "an awareness of and a willingness to probe for the reasons people of another culture behave the way they do" (Heller, p. 48).

We agree with those who believe that language delineates culture (Ball and McCulloch, 1985; Lanier; Simon 1980; Robock and Simmonds; Kirpalani; Terpstra). As Bonaparte explains, language facilitates cultural understanding: "Language provides a window into another culture. It also provides more important lessons about how viewpoint and modes of expression vary -- it simulates experience and helps one to understand the nature and extent of international differences" (Bonaparte, p. 12). This viewpoint is echoed by Dotlich: "the nuances, subtle cues and cultural information derived from learning another language are often missed by those who rely on English to conduct business overseas" (Dotlich, p. 30).

Although we believe that proficiency in a second language as well as its implications for cultural awareness are universally valuable, we are not advocating that language competency requirements be added to the required business curriculum for all students. Instead, we are proposing that along with a broad international exposure, reasonable curricular options should be made available. Appropriate courses or other vehicles should be developed for those students having an interest or obvious need for acquiring language skills. A number of schools with specific international management studies programs require second language competence (e.g., Thunderbird American Graduate School of International Management; Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania; and, the University of South Carolina). For general business programs, however, we propose that language training should be tailored to the needs of the students, and enrollment should be encouraged through counseling, and by increasing the awareness of the relevance and benefits of achieving fluency in a second language.

The State of Foreign Language Study

Before we can begin an assessment of the ways in which foreign language training might be incorporated into the business school curriculum, it would be useful to explore the state of foreign language study in the United States. It is no secret that we are in the midst of a crisis, both in the perception and the practice of foreign language education. In the face of dropping enrollments, the loosening and elimination of graduation requirements, and a seeming lack of consensus about possible solutions, there are a few notable voices who have sounded the battle call for a new commitment to excellence in foreign language and international studies.

Simon, using some sobering statistics, demonstrates just how poorly the U.S. compares with many developed and developing nations regarding the quantity and quality of foreign language instruction. He points out that "At one-fifth of the nation's two-year colleges, no foreign language course is taught. By contrast, in most developed nations --- and in many of the developing nations --- not even an elementary school is without a foreign language program". (Simon, 1980, p. 32.) Even those students who do study language in our country rarely acquire even minimum proficiency. Diller, citing a number of research studies, says that "In 1965, 90% of graduating French majors failed to reach the level of minimum professional proficiency in speaking, and only half of them reached that level in reading" (Diller, 1978, p. 1). The literature is full of such shocking revelations, but we can also find some opportunities for correcting this national embarrassment. Thompson, for example, sees hope in the recommendations made by such eminent bodies as the Task Force on Language of the American Council of Education, The Modern Language Association's Task Force, and the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. (Thompson, 1980) He points to a new awareness in the language teaching profession and among educational administrators that the study of foreign languages has been neglected. He proposes establishing "bilingual education schools" and "international magnet high schools" open to all American students, but concludes that "the question will be resolved in the political arena" because of the enormous commitment of resources which would be required (Thompson, p. 54).

While we commend the efforts of those who call for renewed emphasis on foreign language study in American elementary and secondary schools as well as universities, we find that they all too rarely take into consideration the realities surrounding the rationale for and current practice of foreign language education. When they proclaim the need for a "bilingual" America, they fail to ask themselves the question, "Why isn't America already "bilingual"? The answer to that question is not clear to us yet, but sociolinguists, particularly Joshua Fishman, have begun to explore the factors which have made the United States a de facto monolingual country, despite its size and cultural diversity.

Options for the Acquisition of Language Skills by College Students--a Review and Critique

We have previously argued that the American business community has something to gain by insisting on an international component in the business school curriculum so that our future business professionals will have an enhanced ability to compete in the world marketplace. The question we are addressing is not how to pull foreign language majors into the business world, but how to supply business majors with the requisite international awareness, a component of which may be foreign language skills. What we are proposing is that we look toward integrating foreign language training into the mainstream business curriculum, at least for some subset of business majors.

Among the many possible options for acquiring foreign language skills are Berlitz-type crash programs, summer school intensive language courses, and semester abroad "total immersion" training. The first option, the Berlitz-style crash course, usually offered by private for-profit language instruction centers, is the method chosen by many organizations to train their employees who are about to embark on foreign assignments. For university students this seems the least appealing option because it is both cost prohibitive and is limited to providing mostly speaking skills without imparting a meaningful in-depth study of culture.

Summer school intensive language courses are an attractive option in that students may dedicate all their time to language study without the distraction of other course work. There are, however, matters of practicality which may inhibit students from choosing this option. Students often must spend summers working full time in order to defray the costs of their education. Also, a maximum of twelve weeks, sometimes less, is generally available for summer study. This amount of time may not be sufficient for many students to acquire the requisite skills, especially considering the lack of continuing practice after the end of summer session.

The same twelve week time period might be utilized more efficiently in a semester abroad "total immersion" program in which the student is in contact with the language and culture not only in the artificial environment of the classroom, but also outside it. This, too, seems an attractive possibility, but again it is hampered in practice by high cost and the fact that students must give up a quarter or semester of their other studies in favor of acquiring language skills.

In light of this discussion, one may be tempted to rely on existing university foreign language offerings to provide language skills and cultural knowledge to those business students who elect to meet the international component of their program through language study. This option would require the least amount of change in existing university curricula and in particular would avoid an extensive (and expensive) revamping of the foreign language program. At first blush, this seems to be the logical choice, unless, of course, you consider the amount of time available to the business student for acquiring foreign language skills. A typical language skills sequence consists of two years' study in which the major elements of grammar and a basic vocabulary are presented with a more or less equal emphasis placed on the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In many institutions, students take one or two more courses in advanced composition and conversation beyond the two year skills sequence. In all, there is a commitment of as much as two and one-half years in acquiring a minimal degree of proficiency, something we suspect many students would not opt for, unless required to do so.

Now we have arrived at the crucial point on which our argumentation rests: to learn a foreign language to the degree required in order to function adequately in the cultural milieu of the native speakers of that language requires much more time than that which is available to the typical business major, or any other non-language major, for that matter.

It might be productive at this point to consider the amount of time required to produce a bilingual person. Using the Foreign Service Institute guidelines for reaching "minimum professional proficiency", Diller asserts that "In an ordinary school year of 180 days, at the rate of one hour a day, it would take five years to reach 900 hours of instruction in a foreign language. We can safely conclude that a student cannot become bilingual in less than five years of study...." (Diller, p. 135). Terrell, in a commentary on the current situation in foreign language education, says that "The reality is that the majority of our students in one and two year language courses do not attain even a minimal level of communicative competence" (Terrell, 1977, pp. 325-326). Similarly, Belasco critiques the classroom setting and the methods used in the last few decades and asserts that "After more than forty years of foreign language teaching, I have yet to encounter a group of students who, having completed two years of foreign language study in high school and two years in college, may be said to have attained a satisfactory level of proficiency" (Belasco, 1983, p.213). Furthermore, he continues, "Few students --after six, seven, or more years of foreign language exposure-- approximate the level of proficiency attained by a three-year old native speaker of the language they study" (p. 214). While this may represent an extreme position, it certainly underscores the importance of time in acquiring a second language.

The lack of time is not the only obstacle in learning a foreign language in the classroom. The fact that most first year language programs try to strike a balance between the four skills but with a decided leaning toward literacy skills (reading and writing), almost certainly assures mediocre attainment in all four skills but particulary in listening and speaking. It is true that certain methodologies and approaches stress different skills, but a cursory perusal of most current first year foreign language texts will show that the authors are dedicated to offering a balanced presentation of the four skills, more or less equally throughout the book. The development of literacy skills was the main goal of the grammar/translation method, but the primacy of this goal is still with us, as Terrell points out, "in the guise of a new name, cognitive-code".(Terrell, p. 325) There is a good reason why literacy skills have been stressed: the foreign language curriculum has been geared toward producing majors with literary skills and some cultural knowledge. This may be sufficient for foreign language majors, but if students from other disciplines want to stress speaking skills, for example, they must look elsewhere. Simon perceives this as a great problem for attracting a new student "clientele" to foreign language programs. He asserts that "so long as literature study is the major aim, the ability of the language courses to attract a multidisciplinary interest will lag". (Simon, p.43)

Not only are the skills presented in most of our foreign language classes out of sync with the needs of other specialized groups, but also the content itself is not geared to specialized needs. We all too often teach our students about the language, but not the language itself. In terms of Krashen's (1981) Monitor theory, the students learn to rely too heavily on the Monitor, that is to say that their language abilities are learned, not acquired. Much of the time, as Belasco indicates, "the teacher does most of the work and gets all the practice". (Belasco, p. 213) He also questions the wisdom of presenting what he calls the "fifty traditional grammatical principles" as necessary and sufficient for the acquisition of a foreign language. In an article otherwise at odds with Belasco's views, Verzasconi supports Belasco's criticism, suggesting "that we ought to at least consider abandoning the notion that all the structures of a language must be covered in one academic year..." (Verzasconi, 1984, p. 140). The overwhelming amount of grammar traditionally presented in first year language classes is a clear obstacle to communication. As Terrell indicates, "it is probably true that normal first year language students are not capable of learning to control in their speech the immense amount of grammatical complexity taught in most classes in a single year." (Terrell, p. 326) Furthermore, with so much time spent on grammar, vocabulary acquisition is kept to a bare minimum, therefore students may be able (with much thought and effort) to create fairly complex sentences after a year of study, but they may be able to communicate only in semantically restricted situations.

The literature abounds with calls for more emphasis on true communication by "establishing as quickly as possible a large lexicon" so that students may speak on as many different topics as possible.(Terrell, p. 327) This is not happening in most classrooms, and textbooks remain organized more around grammar topic than semantic fields.

Clearly, then, the use of traditional foreign language offerings to provide language skills to non-language majors, specifically business majors, is an unsatisfactory arrangement at best, and is in all probability counterproductive. The following points summarize the discussion to this point:

1) Acquiring a second language in traditional university classroom settings takes an inordinate amount of time in exchange for the limited proficiency one can reasonably expect to attain.
2) The four skills sequence most commonly taught in American universities is designed to produce literacy skills, not speaking skills.
3) The goal of acquiring all the grammatical structures of a language in one year is an overly ambitious goal and one which is probably impossible to attain.
4) The limited amount of vocabulary presented in a typical first year language course is both too small and too general to be of much use in a business setting.

Language Education: A Proposal

Despite the criticisms we have just made of the use of traditional foreign language offerings to provide language skills to business majors, we do feel that university course work can be an appropriate vehicle for acquiring foreign language and area study skills. What we are offering is a specific proposal for altering both the content and methods employed in university foreign language skills courses so that they will focus on the language needs of those business students who want to pursue foreign language and culture studies. The issues associated with implementation will be addressed in a subsequent portion of this paper.

As was described earlier, the major weakness we find with the content of traditional foreign language offerings is that they tend to stress the learning of literacy skills throughout the two year sequence. They also rely too heavily on an extensive exposure to grammar. If we can accept the premise that what business majors really need out of a foreign language course is to acquire communication skills (comprehension and speaking), then we must restructure our courses to insure that they instill communicative competence, not merely a passing acquaintance with a large quantity of grammar rules. Terrell defines communicative competence as the ability to "understand the essential points of what a native speaker says ... in a real communicative situation and ... respond in such a way that the native speaker interprets the response with little or no effort and without errors that are so distracting that they interfere drastically with communication." (Terrell, p. 326) The content of the language course must be altered in such a way as to promote successful acquisition of communication skills, and we as teachers must be willing to tolerate (as the native speaker probably will) a lower level of structural or grammatical accuracy. As Terrell points out, "Once the student is communicating, however imperfectly, the teacher can then direct the materials and experiences toward the development of student grammar ("interlanguage") in the direction of adult grammar." (Terrell, p. 327)

What can be done to insure that the content of the course will stress communication? The first step is to assess what grammatical structures have the highest frequency of occurrence and present the least morphological complexity. This has been done quite successfully in programs in English

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for Science and Technology (EST) and English for Special Purposes (ESP). Wilkins speaks of the possibility of establishing for any given language a "minimum adequate grammar" which he defines as "a knowledge of the grammatical system of a language sufficient to meet fundamental and urgent communicative needs." (Wilkins, 1979b, p. 97) In a similar vein, Belasco advocates the presentation of only a "core" grammar in first year language courses. (Belasco, p. 215) As an example of what can be done toward reducing the grammatical load so as to allow concentration on communication, we cite an unpublished beginning German text by Jonathan Conant of the University of Minnesota-Duluth. What Conant has done is to create a course for those who need to know some German, but can only invest in one college quarter of study. The details of how he manages to present a "minimum adequate grammar" are beyond the scope of this paper, but the guiding purpose, according to Conant is to provide the student with a "good command of rudimentary German, and not a rudimentary command of good German."(Conant, 1982, p. 3)

Once the essential grammatical structures have been identified, we must tailor the presentation of vocabulary to the expected needs of the business student. From the very beginning, we can begin introducing vocabulary which will be useful in the domain of business and commerce, along with the vocabulary of everyday life. Students will be able to speak on topics which seem more "real" because they are applicable to their major area of study. It should be possible to create a syllabus which corresponds more nearly to the communicative needs of the learner. Wilkins proposes what he calls a "notional syllabus" which "is not a function of the situation in which [the students] will find themselves, but of the notions they need to express. One can envisage planning the linguistic content according to the semantic demands of the learner." (Wilkins, 1979a, p. 84)

As regards teaching methodology, our proposal is somewhat less emphatic, but remains consistent with our discussion of content. The question of which method is most successful at providing second language skills is one which is still quite open to debate. Terrell cites various studies, among those the Pennsylvania Foreign Language Research Project, which wasable to conclude "very little about the value of different approaches" in terms of their relationship to the attainment of language skills. (Terrell, p. 329) Diller also concludes that we have learned very little through educational research on foreign language teaching methodology. (Diller, p. 97)

Despite the lack of consensus on methodology among language educators, we suggest that alternative methods can be productive if the goal is to provide the learner with sufficient tools to communicate effectively with native speakers of the language. What we are advocating is experimentation with comprehension-based approaches to language learning such as Asher's "Total Physical Response", Gattegno's "Silent Way", or Winitz and Reeds's "Rapid Acquisition of Language by the Avoidance of Speaking". One of the more promising methodologies is Terrell's "Natural Approach" which seems to have amalgamated the best of the direct method, Total Physical Response, and Krashen's Monitor theory of second language acquisition.

Issues of Implementation

We must now turn our attention to the time a business student realistically can spend acquiring foreign language skills and cultural knowledge. For those students there are both restrictions on the amount of coursework done outside the business curriculum, and substantial existing non-business requirements. For this reason, it is likely that language skills courses of necessity will be of relatively short duration and will be intensive in nature. Frink proposes the use of intensive programs, such as those developed by the Army during WWII, in university foreign language programs. (Frink, 1982, p.11) To insure a reasonable degree of proficiency, Hilt recommends "a period of total immersion in a foreign environment, a minimum of a summer abroad..." (Hilt, 1982, p. 7) If the course of study must be limited to one semester or quarter, then we recommend it be done either abroad (where possible) or in an intensive, total immersion setting. This may be most easily accomplished during a summer session.

If the business program is more flexible, allowing more time for coursework outside the major, then we propose a one year course designed with a "notional syllabus" in mind and following our recommendations for fostering communicative competence. The optimum situation would be one which allows a two year language skills and cultural studies sequence, in which students would begin to acquire literacy skills in the second year and could also take traditional courses in culture and literature. This final option could only be implemented where there is degree flexibility and an openness to interdisciplinary curricular experimentation.

Conclusion

We believe that a strong case can be made that knowledge of a foreign language can be of value to people entering the business world. Our proposal is that as a means of partially satisfying the international component of degree requirements, business administration students should have the option of coursework in language studies. Existing offerings fail to address the needs of this group of students. We must devise new skills courses which emphasize the acquisition of communicative competence in a relatively short period of time, and we must be careful to tailor the grammatical and lexical content of the courses to the communicative needs of the students. We realize that, in times of diminishing resources, foreign language departments may find they cannot afford the cost of staff and materials development necessary to adopt a proposal such as ours. Furthermore, we recognize that, particularly in some small colleges and universities, the potential enrollment in such specialized courses would not be large enough to justify their implementation in terms of a cost/benefit ratio. We submit that these issues of implementation do not detract from the validity of our proposal. The proposal should be judged on the basis of its conceptual merit and as an alternative, among many, for internationalizing the business school curriculum.

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APPENDIX I

Summary of Required International Curricular Requirements
for the Bachelor of Accounting and
Bachelor of Business Administration Degrees
University of Minnesota, Duluth
Effective September 1985

All BAc and BBA students must select a minimum of one course from each of the following groups:

Group I

Anthropology 1604--Cultural Anthropology
Geography 1201--World Regions as Human Habitats
Geography 1303--Cultural Geography
Geography 1312--Economic Geography
Political Science 1050--International Relations
Political Science 1500--Contemporary Political Systems
Social Work 1210--Global Issues
Art History 1805--Art and Culture
History 1155--English History
History 1206--Introduction to Modern Europe

Group II

Accounting 5525--Seminar in International Accounting
Business Law 5120--Legal Environment of Multinational Business
Economics 5453--International Economics and Finance
Finance and Management Information Sciences 3649--International Finance
Management Studies 3724--International Business
Political Science 3400--Topics in World Politics
Political Science 3420--International Law I
Political Science 3421--International Law II
Political Science 3455--Alliance Politics
Political Science 3610--Political Economy: An Introduction
Social Work 5502--International Social Development

MIAMI-DADE COMMUNITY COLLEGE: AN ORGANIZATIONAL RESPONSE TO THE LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION NEEDS OF BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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Miami-Dade Community College: An Organizational Response to the Language and Communication Needs of Business and the Professions

In recent years, members of the academic and business sectors have become increasingly aware of the need for a closer partnership. The changing conditions of today's business environment demand that educational institutions be more flexible and responsive to the specific needs of business and industry. The benefits of such a partnership are apparent. While industry can provide valuable sources of information on changing skill requirements and specific business trends, the colleges can provide training and other services to enhance or educate the workforce in a more cost effective manner than by corporate in-house training.

In 1982, the American Council on Education conducted a survey whose results indicated that many colleges and universities had established working relationships with industry. There were more programs between education and industry during 1981 than in the total of the previous five years. The primary types of these cooperative arrangements have generally included employee education and training, use of personnel, use of facilities, research and development and cooperative education (Huddleston and Fenwick 96-100). Such a dramatic increase in collaborative efforts should prompt more educational institutions to examine ties with business and to investigate the possibility of renewing or strengthening those ties.

Miami-Dade Community College has addressed this rising need to establish a working partnership between the academic and the business sectors. In August of 1983, the College established the Center for Business and Industry (CBI) at its Mitchell Wolfson Campus in order to more successfully meet the expressed needs of the business and industrial community of South Florida. Original funding for the CBI was provided by the Board of Trustees of the College in order to establish a Center for Excellence. The CBI was created as the Campus's response to this request. The purpose of this paper will be to outline the organizational structure and function of the CBI. Particular programs and offerings will also be highlighted.

In canvassing area businesses, College officials soon became aware that in order to establish positive ties with and offer appropriate services to the professional community, marketing efforts would have to be centralized and upgraded. Program offerings would also have to be expanded. Because of the considerable size of the College and the danger of some duplication by equivalent or similar departments on all four campuses, there was concern over the fact that area businesses were being approached by too many people and too haphazardly. As a result, a more focused and centralized effort was necessary in order to target and attract area businesses. The image that the College presents to the business and professional community should be consistently favorable. Therefore, it was determined that business professionals would be contacted by, become familiar with and conduct business with only one unit of the College, the Center for Business and Industry.

Because of the volatile and changing nature of the business arena, professional firms, large or small, require customized field-specific training and programs. Academic institutions frequently cannot fulfill these demands for a variety of reasons. Traditional curricula offerings and school and departmental structures have some inherent limitations that impede academic institutions from providing offerings in either the subject matter or the time frame requested.

Many of the programs from which professionals in the business sector would benefit are difficult for departments to mount because they frequently fall outside of traditional curricula offerings. The time factor for program implementation is also very often critical to a corporation. As a result, departments must be in a position to develop curricula and provide instruction where and when the need arises. It is often desirable to conduct a program or course on-site, requiring further special arrangements. Apart from these considerations, marketing existing programs and responding to the immediate requests of businesses with new programs require a considerable amount of financial and personnel resources, neither of which is abundant in departmental structures.

With these concerns in mind, College officials established the CBI. The Center is housed at the College's Mitchell Wolfson Campus primarily because the Campus is located in the heart of the Miami business district. The CBI is designed to provide comprehensive programs and services that not only encompass current College offerings, but also range far beyond them in scope. The CBI has a College-wide charter with no geographical boundaries. This is essential to the function of the Center because currently, all four campuses are restricted to offering courses or on-site programs within these boundaries.

The organization of the Center for Business and Industry is summarized on Table 1.

Cote 4

Table I

Center for Business and Industry: Organizational Chart

WOLFSON CAMPUS
VICE PRESIDENT

DEAN OF INSTRUCTION

SECRETARY (2)

CBI EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR

DIRECTOR OF TRAINING

DIRECTOR OF CONFERENCES

MANAGEMENT CONSULTANT

CBI INSTITUTES

ACCOUNTING
ARCHITECTURE & ENGINEERING
BANKING & FINANCE
COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY
CORPORATE FITNESS
FOREIGN TRADE
HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT
INSURANCE
INTERNATIONAL/ INTERCULTURAL AFFAIRS
LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION
LEGAL
MANAGEMENT & SUPERVISORY
MARKETING & SALES
OFFICE TECHNOLOGY
SCIENCE TECHNOLOGY
SMALL BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT

Source: Miami-Dade Community College Institutional Self-Study (1984).

The Executive Director supervises a total of five staff members: the Director of Training, the Director of Conferences, the Management Consultant and two secretaries. These six staff positions are funded by the College, and the CBI has no enrollment goal. The Director of Training is responsible for developing and implementing corporate on-site programs as well as Campus course offerings in areas of interest to the business community. The primary responsibilities of the Director of Conferences include coordinating and implementing forums, conferences and specialized training seminars for business and industry. The Management Consultant is responsible for developing curricula and delivering management and computer programs. In addition to these staff members, the Executive Director supervises a series of sixteen institutes. Campus faculty members function through these institutes as liaisons between the CBI and various Campus departments. The CBI is an affiliate member of the Greater Miami Chamber of Commerce and has a Board of Advisors composed of corporate leaders who provide guidance for the continuing development of the CBI. A summary of the Campus institutes appears on Table 2.

Table 2

Center for Business and Industry: Institutes

- * ACCOUNTING INSTITUTE: Focuses on basic and advanced accounting courses. Programs for continuing professional education for Certified Public Accountants are planned.

- * ARCHITECTURE AND ENGINEERING INSTITUTE: Offers courses in interior design, computer-assisted design and drafting (CADD). A robotics program and a computer manufacturing program are planned.

- * BANKING AND FINANCE INSTITUTE: Offers a banking program under the sponsorship of the American Institute of Banking (AIB) for members of AIB, the American Bankers Association, and employees of Dade County banks. Offers a savings and loan program in cooperation with the Institute of Financial Education (IFE) for employees of savings and loan associations.

- * COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY INSTITUTE: Provides training for mid and upper level management regarding: 1) computer hardware/software equipment available for business and personal use; 2) use of microcomputers, word processors, spread sheets, and electronic mail; 3) current and future impact of computers in daily management operations and decision-making.

- * CORPORATE FITNESS INSTITUTE: Provides a fitness program for executives to reduce stress, job absenteeism, and to increase physical energy. Assesses each individual's level of fitness, develops a plan to meet each individual's specific fitness needs, and provides aerobic and weight-training exercises.

- * FOREIGN TRADE INSTITUTE: Assists those currently working in the field of foreign trade or those who wish to enter this field. Training topics include: international business, export/import marketing, international exchange rates and regulations, and foreign tariffs.

- * HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE: Trains individuals wishing to acquire or update skills in hotel management. Training topics include: management policies and procedures, front desk procedures, accounting, lodging systems, housekeeping control, sanitation, and courtesy training.

- * INSURANCE INSTITUTE: Focuses on two certificate tracks for insurance professions leading to life/health certification and general lines agent/property and casualty certification.

- * INTERNATIONAL/INTERCULTURAL INSTITUTE: Provides special seminars and conferences for those who plan to conduct business abroad or who wish to develop an international clientele.

Table 2 Cont.

- * LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION INSTITUTE: Provides instruction to improve the language skills of office personnel in the areas of business letter writing, oral and written reports, telephone courtesy, and other skills required for effective communication with the public and internally. Additionally, English, Spanish, French, Italian, German and Portuguese are taught with emphasis on conversation and written discourse in the business environment. Additional courses and language programs in specific professional areas are planned.

- * LEGAL INSTITUTE: Provides training for legal assistants on the fundamentals of law, legal writing, trial practice, real estate, legal processes, will / trust / estate creation and administration, and law office management. Offers conferences and seminars for lawyers on topics of interest to the profession.

- * MANAGEMENT AND SUPERVISORY INSTITUTE: Focuses on upgrading the managerial skills of mid to upper level management in order to increase the productivity of organizations.

- * MARKETING AND SALES INSTITUTE: Provides training to improve marketing and sales techniques.

- * OFFICE TECHNOLOGY INSTITUTE: Updates secretarial skills in the areas of secretarial procedures, typing,word processing applications, machine transcribing, business writing, and office simulation and systems.

- * SCIENCE TECHNOLOGY INSTITUTE: Focuses on science and medical/health care. Provides training in health and medical related procedures and systems.

- * SMALL BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE: Provides seminars and short courses for those who own or plan to own a small business. Also focuses on business operations and business management practices. Instruction ranges from bookkeeping methods to bidding procedures, marketing strategies and vendor contracts.

Source: Miami-Dade Community College, Center for Business and Industry (1985).

Services and programs provided by the CBI and the Campus institutes include training in management and supervision, computers, banking and finance, foreign languages, foreign trade, corporate fitness, hospitality management, insurance, international and intercultural affairs, architecture and engineering, accounting, legal areas, transcultural communication, marketing and sales, health care, and small business development. In addition to program offerings provided on a per-course basis, the CBI also conducts professional seminars, conferences and workshops in cooperation with various professional associations. The Center for Business and Industry serves small and large businesses and industries, banking institutions, communications firms, hotels and restaurants, and many other clients in the business sector. A summary of programs offered and clients served by the Center for Business and Industry is contained in Table 3.

Table 3

Center for Business and Industry: Clients/Programs
August 1983-February 1985

CLIENT	PROGRAM/SERVICE DELIVERED
Barnett Bank	English for Bank Employees Conversational ESL
City of Miami Beach	Building a Productive Work Unit
Dade County Corrections and Rehabilitation Department	Lotus 1,2,3
Dade County Mental Health Association	EAP Conference
Department of Offstreet Parking	Leadership Training Motivation Training Problem-Solving Managing Change Managing Conflict Clarifying Roles and Expectations Delegation Improving Employee Performance Conversational ESL
Federal Reserve Bank	Women in Management
Florida Exporters and Importers Association	Export Order Administration Drawback: Duty Refunds and Exports Export Documentation Improvement Import Shipments and Documentation
Florida International Bankers Association; International Banking Operations Association; Bank Administration Institute	Conference: Documentary Credit Operations
Jackson Memorial Hospital	Performance Appraisal
Mercy Hospital	Stress Management Motivation Training Improving Employee Performance Coping with Change Basic Spanish for Allied Health Personnel Intermediate Spanish for Allied Health Personnel

Table 3 Cont.

Center for Business and Industry: Clients/Programs

CLIENT	PROGRAM/SERVICE DELIVERED
Mercy Hospital	Women in Management Managing Time Delegating Conference: Miami: Health Care in a Multi-Cultural Environment
Metro-Dade Institute for Professional Development	Secretarial Skills Workshops
Miami Chapter of Life Underwriters	Financial Services Pensions and Retirement Planning Wealth Accumulation
Parkway General Hospital	Business Writing
Partners for International Education and Training	Intensive Hospitality Management Intensive Management and Financial Program
Racal-Milgo	ESL Conversation for the Job Conversational ESL
Roma Corporation	NIFI Sanitation
Southeast Bank	English for Bank Employees
Spillis, Candela and Partners	CADD (3 Workshops)
State of Florida Department of Transportation	Introduction to Microcomputers Introduction to Engineering (2 Courses)
Sun Bank of Miami	Basic Business Spanish Intermediate Business Spanish Conversational Spanish
U.S. Army Recruiting and Department of Housing and Urban Development	Team Building Career Goal Setting

Table 3 Cont.

Center for Business and Industry: Clients/Programs

CLIENT	PROGRAM/SERVICE DELIVERED
On Campus (Business Executives)	Forum: John Naisbitt, author of *Megatrends*
On Campus (Business Executives)	Forum: Thomas Peters, author of *In Search of Excellence*
On Campus (International Accountants)	Conference: The Latest Trends in the Field of Accounting
On Campus (International Architects)	Conference: The Latest Trends in the Field of Architecture Computer Applications Workshop for Architects (CADD)
On Campus (Professionals and Interested Public)	*Management Training Programs* Leading Motivating Problem-Solving Managing Change Clarifying Roles and Expectations Delegating Performance Appraisal Improving Employee Performance Managing Time Managing Conflict Managing Stress Conducting Meetings *New Computer Literacy* Introducing Visicalc for Microcomputers Indroducing Wordstar Introducing Lotus 1,2,3 Introducing Basic for Microcomputers Selecting a Personal Computer General Lines Agent *Personnel Training Programs* Personnel Function Skills Communicating Up and Down Running Meetings

Source: Miami-Dade Community College, Center for Business and Industry (1985).

At first glance it would appear that the CBI is in direct competition with existing Campus deparments by organizing and conducting courses and programs that departments might or should pursue. However, the CBI functions primarily as a liaison between or as a broker for Campus departments and area businesses. When a department member makes a chance contact with or is approached by a client wishing training that falls outside of current offerings, schedule formats or locations on the Campus, the request is referred to the CBI. The CBI personnel negotiate the contract with the client, develop the curriculum with the assistance of departmental faculty in the area of expertise desired, and then hire a faculty member from the department to teach the course. The department that is providing the instruction receives the full-time equivalent enrollments for the course or program offering. If the training request falls outside of the expertise or resources of on-Campus personnel, the Center for Business and Industry then hires outside consultants to develop and deliver the course or program. In this case, the full-time equivalent enrollments still revert to the credit or non-credit departments which provide occupational training, rather than to the CBI.

Specifically in the areas of foreign language training and communication, the CBI has conducted transcultural training programs for area businesses and health care organizations. Language offerings have included conversational and business Spanish and English as a second language for a variety of clients that encompass several large banks, communications industries, public works agencies, health care agencies and hospitals. Many of the international seminars are offered in Spanish or bilingually.

Future plans for programs offered by the Center for Business and Industry call for expansion of services to the Caribbean Basin. Extensive development of foreign language offerings, as well as other skill enhancement programs, is expected. Delivery of such programs would be in a Caribbean Basin country or would be accomplished through international conferences or seminars sponsored by the CBI in Miami. Miami's proximity to Caribbean nations, as well as its reputation as an international center for business, makes possible the development of a host of educational and training programs that would benefit professionals working in these countries. Expansion to the Caribbean Basin would further strengthen ties between education and international business.

It is clear that survival in today's complex economic environment, on the part of business as well as education, is contingent upon both interests identifying and responding effectively to current trends in the marketplace. It is becoming increasingly more difficult for the academic and private sectors to function independently, and many institutions have become aware of, and have acted upon the need for both groups to join forces in order to adequately serve all sectors of the population: private, academic and public. It was specifically in recognition of this need that Miami-Dade Community College has established the Center for Business and Industry. Since its inception in 1983, the Center has been very successful in creating a productive partnership between business and education in South Florida, and future plans entail working toward the same cooperative effort on an international scale.

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Suggested Resources

Maureen O'Hara, Executive Director
The Center for Business and Industry
Mitchell Wolfson New World Center Campus
Miami-Dade Community College
300 N.E. Second Avenue
Miami, Florida 33132
(305) 347-3120 (3127)

Business Assistance and Entrepreneurship Education Across League Colleges
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LIBERAL ARTS RAPPORT WITH THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY THROUGH INTERDISCIPLINARY TRADE CONFERENCES

By

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LIBERAL ARTS RAPPORT WITH THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY THROUGH INTERDISCIPLINARY TRADE CONFERENCES

The idea for an annual series of international trade conferences to be sponsored by Clemson University came about several years ago as a result of the collaboration between two Liberal Arts faculty members--one an international politics expert and the other a foreign language specialist. These two professors had earlier written an international studies minor proposal and successfully guided it through the necessary curriculum channels. Since this minor required course work in political science, foreign languages, geography, and economics, it was decided that some activity should be planned which would establish linkages among these departments, in order to support and market the new minor. Economics at Clemson is a part of the College of Commerce and Industry, so the initial trade conference was also viewed as a means of bringing the College of Liberal Arts into direct contact with both the business college and the business community. The probability of their asking us to co-sponsor such an event was practically nil, so preparations were made to present our proposals to the dean and associate dean of the business school.

The draft proposal we prepared for that meeting was geared toward a conference built around a rather general theme of international studies and international business; however, it soon became clear that this rather esoteric idea simply had no appeal to our more technically oriented business colleagues. A more practical approach would be necessary in order to gain their confidence and support. As luck would have it, that very day a trade specialist from the District Office of the International Trade Administration of the U. S. Department of Commerce had visited with the business dean and expressed an interest in exploring ways in which his agency might cooperate with the business college. Right before our eyes the magic triad was evolving--academe, government, business--and Liberal Arts was a part of the dream.

This was the beginning of an extremely fruitful relationship between the International Studies Committee of the College of Liberal Arts and the U. S. Department of Commerce. Two trade specialists, one who would later become the Director of the District Office, were eager to work with us on a week by week, month by month, year by year basis in order to plan and promote an annual trade conference. We found ourselves the beneficiaries of a wealth of trade expertise, enthusiastic support staff, and friendly assistance, all of which would make it possible for Clemson University to co-sponsor an annual series of conferences designed to bring business, government, students and teachers into a mutually beneficial relationship. And all this would be realized with very little hard cash, just a lot of hard work. These conferences can provide the setting for faculty and students alike to interview business and government representatives and use their data as a primary source for research papers or teaching materials in technical writing courses, business foreign language courses, or speech classes.

Under the prestigious sounding title of "First Southeastern International Trade Conference," the series was launched in 1982 with a "nuts and bolts" conference on "Exporting for Profit." The program was designed as a seminar for business personnel, to provide indepth counseling on the latest procedures of the federal, state, and local governments to aid businesses in successfully entering the field of exports and to explore the resources available through private, commercial, and educational institutions. Primary co-sponsors, along with the U. S. Department of Commerce, were the College of Commerce and Industry and the College of Liberal Arts at Clemson.

The 1983 conference, "International Economic Interdependence," brought in the College of Agricultural Sciences as a major planner, along with Liberal Arts and the U. S. Department of Commerce. This second conference in the series provided a forum for the discussion of problems affecting United States international trade, with the objective of formulating a foundation for solutions which could guide future trade policy. Prominent on the program were representatives from banks, agricommodities companies, the U. S. Department of the Treasury, the European Economic Community, and the Foreign Agricultural Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

The 1984 conference, Export '84, was moved off campus to a neighboring population center in order to attract more walk-in registrants. By this time the list of co-sponsors had grown to ten, including the S. C. State Development Board, the S. C. Appalachian Council of Governments, and the S. C. District Export Council. The two-day trade show provided the manufacturing and agricultural community the opportunity to meet with representatives of service organizations that could assist them in exporting their products and services. In addition to exhibits of export management companies, freight forwarders, steamship lines, consulting firms, universities, and government agencies, there were eight workshops conducted on such topics as export financing, export success stories, exporting to the Near East and the Far East, and exporting various kinds of products: agricultural, high technology, textile machinery and apparel.

The common denominator that has held all of these conferences together has been the participation of the faculty and students of Clemson University, particularly those in Liberal Arts. This series has played an important role in stimulating campus interest in international affairs and promoting contacts and cooperative agreements between the university and the business community. Moreover, key sessions have been videotaped for the purpose of building up a videotape library for presentations both on-campus and in the community.

Another very important by-product of these joint ventures has been the blending of the humanistic and technical elements in a land-grant institution. This is of paramount importance both to the students and the faculty, in order that the artificial barriers that traditionally have separated a liberal and a professional education may become bridges of understanding. The intercollege alliances that have been established have remained a dynamic and cohesive force in fostering a spirit of cooperation and innovation among the faculties and administrators.

Two recent grants have added impetus to the interdisciplinary thrust of support that has developed from the trade conference series. The Business and International Educational Program (Title VI, B) of the Higher Education Act, administered by the U. S. Department of Education, matched Clemson University's 1985 funding of the development of an international internship option within Clemson's Cooperative Education Program; and the Kellogg Foundation is funding an agricultural literacy project between the Colleges of Agricultural Sciences and Liberal Arts.

The internship grant was administered jointly by the Department of Languages, the Department of Agricultural Economics, and the Co-op Office. The enabling legislation was specifically designed to "develop linkages between institutions of higher education and the business community involved in international economic activities." The way had already been paved by the first trade conference; and the second and third trade conferences framed in the grant year. Contacts from these trade conferences proved indispensable in the job development necessary in order to place students into international trade related positions.

It was soon realized that an expanded internship program would be an integral part of a proposed new Liberal Arts major in Language and

International Trade, based on the Eastern Michigan University model. But unlike EMU, students at Clemson would choose an area of concentration in departments that are traditionally strong at this land-grant institution--international agriculture, textiles, or tourism. All of these areas are extremely important, not only to improving the U. S. balance of payments generally, but each contributes in a unique way to the mission of Clemson University as it establishes a prototype for other land-grant institutions. In the case of textiles, this new international perspective might help solve some of the problems of a dying American industry. The promotion of agribusiness through an international agriculture option is naturally of prime concern to an institution like Clemson. International tourism, the third option, has already assumed a major role in the economy of South Carolina. In 1982 alone the state's European Marketing Program brought in an additional 26,000 visitors whose spending was logged as export income in the balance of payments.

The proposed interdisciplinary degree program with its three technical options combined with a required internship would provide language majors with a practical laboratory for testing their abilities to analyze facts, reach logical conclusions, and find workable solutions in an international environment. This scenario of success, however, can only be realized through the on-campus/off-campus network which has been nourished by the annual international trade conference series.

The most salient point on which the new degree program would be predicated is the importance of combining the technical and humanistic aspects of a student's education into a meaningful whole. A land-grant university, such as Clemson, provides a rich environment for such a blending, but historically this has not been the case. A major hurdle toward accomplishing this goal has already been resolved in the pre-grant agreements, negotiated among the four colleges concerned. And the international trade conference series laid the groundwork by proving that liberal arts can descend from the ivory tower into the marketplace, that foreign languages do have an important role to play in international business, that cultural sensitivity may, indeed, be the ultimate marketing tool.

Today's Liberal Arts students, among other students, are more career oriented than in the past several years. It is desirable to reach this important segment of the student population with a major which allows them to apply their humanistic orientation and creativity to the world of work before they enter the job market. The business contacts made and nurtured through the ongoing international trade conferences will provide a wealth of opportunities for liberal arts students to explore career opportunities and accumulate professional experience before graduation.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

May 2-4, 1985

PART II

PROGRAM OVERVIEWS

EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY'S LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE PROGRAM: OVERVIEW AND COMPONENTS

By

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Eastern Michigan University's
Language and International Trade Program:
Overview and components

The Language and International Trade Program was instituted in 1978 and was fully implemented in 1980. There are now approximately 450 B.A. and M.A. majors in the program, constituting three-fourths of all student majors in the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies.

In developing Language and International Trade, the Foreign Language Department has created the largest program in business language studies in the United States, with four advanced undergraduate and two graduate business language courses offered in all three foreign languages taught at EMU. In addition, two graduate-level courses in Business English are also offered to foreign students. Students have come to EMU to major in Language and International Trade from 35 countries (including the U.S.).

According to a survey of our students conducted in the Winter Semester, 1983, the single most attractive component of Language and International Trade is our International Cooperative Education Exchange Program, through which students are placed in foreign professional training assignments. In placing our students abroad, we arrange reciprocal placements of foreign business students from our partner institutions (in Germany, France and Spain) in the U.S. We have also established a consortial linking arrangement with ten other U.S. colleges and universities to stabilize student enrollment in the exchange.

One rather critical dimension of EMU's Language and International Trade program overview would be the financial one and so I will now turn to the funding of the program.

EMU's Language and International Trade Programs were created and implemented through grants from Title VI (The U.S. Department of Education), the government of West Germany, and the Fund for Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (the U.S. Department of Education), which have provided funds for a full-time program director and other forms of program support. From September of 1983 to August of 1984, EMU obtained a grant from the Exxon Education Foundation to fund a second full-time administrative position in Language and International Trade, that of Assistant Director. For the current year 1984-5, the EMU Language and International Trade Program is receiving $75,000 from the State of Michigan for the salaries and benefits of the director and the assistant director. In addition, the program is receiving a grant from the Exxon Education Foundation for a full-time secretary and program expenses, a grant from the Ford Motor Company, and a grant from the Michigan Council for the Humanities for this conference. For the 1985-6 year, we are hoping to have complete institutionalization for the L&IT basic program administration from the State of Michigan as part of the EMU budget. One further thing--we are expecting to add a complete program from beginning to M.A. for Business Japanese as of September 1985.

At this point, I'd like to shift to a description of the requirements for graduation from EMU's L&It program, which you will be able to follow by looking at the blue handout for the MA and the white check-sheet for the B.A. The M.A. in L&IT is an interdisciplinary degree comprised in part of 15 to 18 hours of business and economics and of 10 to 12 hours of intensive foreign language courses at the graduate level. The B.A. in L&IT is also an interdisciplinary degree of 60 hours, 30 of which are in Business and Economics and 27 of which are in Language and Area studies. In addition, both the M.A. and the B.A. require a field experience of four months of full-time work in a cooperative education position or in an internship in a business firm.

The nature of the International Cooperative Education Exchange program, which we consider to be the crucial factor in Eastern Michigan University's Language and International Trade program is explained in length in the longest of the handouts you have received. I would like to go through this handout with you here and now, but due to time contraints must request that you review it later. Nevertheless, I felt that as this is what you might call the "king-pin" to our L&IT program, that I should explain why we view it as such, why we think the field experience is so important and again, since I cannot delve into this document, I decided perhaps a short story about a language learner would make my point.

> There was a man who went to Country X. Prior to his visit he had, of course, trained rigorously in Language X, but when he got into the new country and began trying to do daily business, he got a bit of a shock. People fell over laughing whenever he spoke Language X. Well, naturally, the man was dismayed. He decided to attend an institution of higher education in Country X and get a rigorous course in Language X on their home ground. This he did, and with a great passion, for a good period of time. He sweated and slaved over lexis, syntax, and sound. Finally he decided to give his newly acquired confidence and skill a trial run. He went out into a big city and entered a place of business and sat down. When an employee approached him, the man very clearly said in Language X, "Let me have the ham and egg omelette with a side order of potatoes and a cup of coffee with cream but no sugar." The man listening immediately said: "You must be foreign." The man, utterly depressed, said: "Yes, but how did you know?" The employee of the business replied, "This is a hardware store."

So what we are trying to do with the field experience is not only to make sure that people can function in the language, but that they can function in new language environment, new discourse domains, specifically those relating to business and trade.

Hand in hand with the field experience which we so strongly stress at EMU's L&IT program is the language proficiency testing component of our program. Our campus has come to serve as an officially designated testing center recognized in business Spanish by the Madrid Chamber of Commerce, in Business French by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, and in Business German by the Goethe Institute and the Carl Duisberg Society.

I should note here that Session 33 tomorrow at 2:00 p.m. will feature as one participant, Sabina Steglitz, who will be here from the Goethe Institue to speak about this type of testing.

The final component of EMU's L&IT Program I should mention briefly, although it would be the proof without which there is no pudding, is career placement of our graduates. If you take a longer look at this last document, "Career Placement of Graduates of Business Language Programs: The Results at Eastern Michigan University" by Ray Schaub, you will get more details but suffice it to say here that over 95% of our graduates have obtained professional positions and 65% of those have gotten entry level positions in international business, positions typically set aside for employees of higher seniority, which have been made accessible to our graduates through their training in the Language and International Trade Program.

I realize this has been a bit rushed, but I do thank you for your kind attention.

THE VALUE OF AN INTERDISCIPLINARY B.B.A.-B.A. PROGRAM IN LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

By

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The Value of an Interdisciplinary B.B.A.-B.A. Program in Language and International Business

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While the details of Eastern Michigan University's United States Department of Education grant to develop a program in language and international business are summarized elsewhere in the proceedings of this conference, the uniqueness and intrinsic value of such a program perhaps need a bit further elaboration. The three features of Eastern Michigan University's program that most distinguish it from other attempts to address the role of world business or language education are 1) the spirit of cooperation evident in the joint B.B.A.-B.A. degree; 2) the equal importance of foreign language and business education to the joint degree; and 3) the unique coursework opportunities that the marriage of these two disciplines allows.

The spirit of cooperation evident in the concept of a joint B.B.A.-B.A. degree in language and international business remains arguably the most unique feature of the new program. To our knowledge, as the grant itself notes, "no other such undergraduate applied joint degree program exists in this country." Not only is such a prospect challenging from the standpoint of academe alone, but from the actual application described in the grant expressly includes "an academic and work placement network in applied business and languages which is unparalleled."

The need for a joint degree joining language and international business expertise is most dramatically shown in the national trade deficit figures which currently far exceed the $30 billion mark at one time thought to be impossible. Admittedly, one cannot reduce the cause of the current U.S. trade imbalance to one reason alone. Still, the failings of existing international business practices that the joint degree addresses have received considerable attention as a major factor in the relative decline of the United States in the increasingly integrated global economy. The President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, for example, clearly focuses on this need for sensitivity to human and intercultural values in business:

> International trade has become more important to our economic well-being than ever before, but our trade performance has deteriorated ominously: America's trade deficit amounted to $28.5 billion in 1978.... While some [obstacles to greater U.S. participation in international trade] involve such factors as low rates of productivity growth and domestic inflation, it is the Commission's view that one serious barrier to American business is its lack of foreign language and area expertise.
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> (A Report to the President from the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979, pp. 125-26).

Because of the spirit of cooperation between the two schools in offering a joint B.B.A.-B.A. degree, the Eastern Michigan University program is able to provide the needed language and area expertise coupled with the necessary background in business that would allow its graduates to handle the challenges of international trade. Language expertise is a vital component of such a program. At the heart of the new program is the central belief that the language of business is the language and culture of its customer. By integrating multilinguistic and intercultural values into the undergraduate studies and goals of the joint degree, the designers of the program hope to instill in its students an understanding not of foreign business practices and markets but rather the way in which business is conducted in other countries' domestic markets.

A joint degree combining language and international business, finally, offers a variety of courses which though related might not otherwise be as fully integrated. The degree requirements combine a defined track of language proficiency requirements suited to the rigors of academic exchange and work-intern demands with a menu of required and elective courses in finance, comparative management, marketing, accounting and production mangagement.

Additionally, the program will offer a pilot set of multilingual team-taught business seminars. In this unique and exciting course opportunity, a team of instructors would gather seniors proficient in one or more languages and, as the grant states, "exercise them in problem-solving, communication, and business applications" in the second or third language. Such a team-taught seminar embraces all three principle features of the new program. As a team-taught offering, the seminar clearly demonstrates the spirit of cooperation implicit in the joint degree program. As a course teaching advanced business concepts directly using the appropriate vocabulary from the second language taught in that language, the seminar produces an atmosphere conducive to the formation of a bilingual or multilingual liaison focused in communications coordination, skilled in strategizing, acute in assessing work demands, and capable of implementing these practices in an international environment. Finally, as a new course offering resulting solely from the possibilities of a joint degree, the team-taught multilingual seminar offers the student a unique opportunity currently offered in no other undergraduate business or language program in the United States.

It is the sincere belief of the drafters of this new joint degree program that such efforts will educate students to, in the words of the grant, "develop international business expertise, communicated with proficiency in language." Through such a program, it is hoped to help reverse the increasingly diminished role of the United States as a force in the worldwide integrated market.

"INTO THE MELTING POT": THE DEVELOPMENT OF A EUROPEAN DIMENSION IN A 4-YEAR DEGREE PROGRAMME IN LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL MARKETING

By

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"Into the melting pot": (the development of a European dimension in a 4-year degree programme in Languages and International Marketing

In order to appreciate fully the significance of this programme overview, it is necessary to understand something of the context from which it has emerged. Firstly the geographical context. Ireland is an island nation with the youngest population in Europe: over half of its three and a half million population is under the age of 25. Unemployment is unacceptably high and continues to rise. Government, industrialists and trade unionists all agree on the necessity to create jobs, and all recognise the need for Ireland to create new markets for its produce and to export in order to survive. Traditionally, Ireland's major overseas market has been the United Kingdom. Over the past decade, however, the proportion of Irish exports going to Britain has decreased, while the amount going to her other, continental, trading partners has increased. An example of this European dimension to the Irish economy is the fact that West German investment in Ireland is second only to investment from the United States.

Given such a young population, which is also, incidentally, the fastest growing population in Europe, successive Irish governments have recognised the crucial role to be played by education in building for the nation's future. In the university sector this recognition became tangible reality in 1980 with the opening of the National Institute for Higher Educaion in Dublin. The NIHE (as it has become known) was designed to be radically different from the traditional universities in its aims and objectives, but to be in every way equal to them in quality. It is today a technological university, in international terms, and has a clear mission to respond positively and creatively to national manpower needs.

The School of Applied Languages at the NIHE reflects this technological emphasis in its philosophy, and in the degree programmes it offers. The term "applied" indicates that our basic aim is the teaching of modern languages, not principally as an academic discipline, not simply as a communicative skill in a general sense, but rather as a professional education that is highly relevant to a limited number of specific career outlets. We have, therefore, set out to identify precise areas in which a professional expertise in one or more foreign languages would be of particular and demonstrable use to Irish industry and commerce.

Since there were no other applied language departments in any of the Irish universities, either North or South of the border, and since the prevailing view of the traditional university language department was that "applied language studies" lacked serious academic credibility, it was obvious to me, when I was asked to form a school of Applied Languages at the NIHE, that some observers were expecting the creation of a servicing school which would play second - or even third, fiddle to other, more important schools. Had this in fact happened, I believe it would have had quite disastrous effects for the academic credibility of the discipline of applied languages as well as for the motivation of the teaching staff who would be working and researching in the school.

This sense of academic credibility and identity was part of the rationale that lay behind the creation of our first undergraduate degree programme - a BA in Languages and International Marketing, which enrolled its first students in October 1981. This is a joint honours degree, in which equal emphasis and equal recognition are given to the study of modern languages on the one hand, and business studies (with a specialisation in international marketing) on the other. The aim of the programme is to produce a graduate who will be capable of working in the field of export selling and international marketing, and who will thereby enhance Ireland's chances of increasing her share of the European market. Our team of course designers felt that a knowledge of two modern languages would give the graduate greater career mobility, and this was borne out by market research amongst potential employers. The main objective of the business lecturers in the team was to produce a graduate capable of working in the commercial sector, specifically in the field of marketing. That of our linguists was to ensure that this graduate would be able to operate effectively in a French or German speaking environment. We were unanimous in our view that these objectives were complementary rather than separate, and we were fortunate in the respect that this programme was among our first ventures. We were not faced with the worst aspects of having to convince people who had spent years treading a traditional path of the advantages of branching out and trying something new. We had all come to work at the NIHE precisely because of our interest in innovation.

The degree in Languages and International Marketing is a four year programme. It has an annual intake of 45 students, who are chosen on the basis of open competition on school Leaving Certificate results from what has now become a yearly figure of 1700-1800 applicants. On average, just over 70% of our students are girls. This is a reflection of traditional attitudes in the Irish secondary school system where girls tend to be pushed towards what are seen as the more soft, arts/humanities subjects while boys are channeled into more masculine, hard, scientific or relevant disciplines.

In Year 1 of the programme all students study two languages (French and German). An honours result in School Leaving certificate French is a course requirement, since French is by far the most widely studied European language in Irish secondary schools. Recognising the minority position of German at this level, we decided to run two streams of German in the first year of our course, a beginners stream, and a normal stream (for students with honours in both French and German). The conventional student with both languages at entry takes 5 hours per week of each language. The ab initio German student takes 5 hours French, but 9 hours per week of a special beginners German course. These beginners will sit a slightly different German language examination at the end of their first year, but by the end of their second year they have proved themselves eminently capable of competing on more than equal terms with their conventional counterparts. In some respects they are advantaged, since their motivation to learn is very high and they do not have to face the ordeal of "un-learning" false data and deep-rooted errors from several years of school German!

The other half of the students' time in first year involves the study of four business subjects: Marketing, Economics, Business Organisation and Management, and Quantitative Methods. In terms of class contact hours these subjects represent 10 hours per week. This has to be set alongside a further 10 hours per week for the two languages (or 14 hours if the students is a beginner in German).

The eventual object of the joint structure of this programme is the integration of the languages and the business studies. In the first year, however, (and the same is true to some extent of the second year), we feel it is essential to lay solid foundations in each of the discipline areas independently. Hence the emphasis in the language courses (with the exception of the ab initio German) is placed upon consolidation of basic skills such as aural comprehension, oral proficiency, written accuracy, and upon the acquisition of a general backcloth of knowledge which is known in French as "civilisation et institutions" and in German as "Landeskunde". These pursuits account for over 80% of the students' activities in language studies: the remaining time is devoted to what we call French Reading Programme and German Reading Programme. This syllabus runs for 15 weeks, one hour per week for each language, and consists of the study of two 20th Century texts in each language, which are considered important for the insights they offer into contemporary France and Germany. It must be admitted that we are still asked, even by our colleagues from the Business Faculty, what precisely is the relevance of "literature" on such a strongly career-orientated degree. This concern is understandable. The role played by Economics, Management or Marketing in the professional life of the export sales manager is obvious and quantifiable. The necessity for him to speak a foreign language is recognised, though sometimes only reluctantly. The need for him to understand, respond to, and be able to function in the foreign cultural and intellectual environment in which he has to do business is a concept not readily grasped.

The second year of the programme is similarly structured, with the students' time again equally divided between the study of the two languages and a further group of four business subjects. The new business subjects are Law, Accounting, Managerial Economics, and Statistics and Marketing Research. In this year the students have 6 hours pwe week tuition in each language. There are three distinct components in the second year French and German courses: a "standard" language syllabus (largely translation and essay writing) of 3 hours per week: one hour per week of commercial language: and two hours per week of Literature in Society (based on 19th and 20th century texts, and ranging from fiction to sociology).

About half way through the second year, the student has, with the assistance of his other tutors, to make two important choices which will determine much of what will happen to him or her in the final two years of the programme. The first of these choices is that of major language, the seond is the international marketing topic on which the third year thesis (or, as we call it, Project) will be written.

A number of criteria govern these choices. On the language side, there is the obvious advantage to the student of choosing whichever is his/her stronger subject - French or German, since the better the grasp of the language the quicker the student will be likely to adapt to the foreign environment, and the easier it will be for him or her to participate in marketing classes of an appropriate level at the foreign university. Similarly, the greater the student's language competence, the more effectifve will be his or her research work while abroad. This means that the choice of major language is in many ways related to, and (some of my colleagues might even feel) dependant upon the choice of Project topic. The sole condition governing the third year Project is that it shall be on an international marketing related topic. A sample list of previous years' Project titles is given in the Appendix to this paper. There is little point in allowing a student to proceed with a research proposal if, for example, none of the regions in which our partner universities are situated has an appropriate industrial, commercial or social infrastructure. Therefore a considerable amount of time in the latter part of second year is devoted to tutorial work with students on these two major issues.

Before turning to a detailed examination of the Year Abroad, I will present a brief description of the final year of this programme. This, I hope, will provide the sort of programme overview which is necessary for a proper understanding of the aims and objectives of the Year Abroad itself. As we oiriginally designed it, the final year was a joint honours combination in which students specialised in International Marketing (studying four subjects: International Trade, International Marketing, Marketing Management and Consumer behaviour) and in one language (either French or German). A combination of factors, including student demand and requirements stipulated in many job advertisements in the field of marketing, caused us to revise the languages side of the package so that there would be choice for the student:specialising in one language as before, or taking a major/minor language combination. This has proved particularly attractive to the very large number of students who have come to us with no German. Under the original course structure many of them had felt reluctant to abandon German entirely after they had spent two years acquiring quite a respectable level of competence in it.

Under our new structure, the single language student (for example in German) will take 5 hours per week of a cognate German for Business and German "Landeskunde" syllabus, 2 hours per week of either Economic Translation or Consecutive Interpreting. and 2 hours per week of a special option (19th Century German satire or The language of advertising: a German/English comparison). The major/minor student (for example major French will take 5 hours per week of French for Business, 3 hours per week of minor German, and 2 hours per week of a French special option (French social movements of the 1970's or 6 French writers and the threatened devaluation of man).

Remembering that the specific intention of the overall programe was to produce a graduate capable of working in the spheres of export selling, and/or international marketing, - and furthermore a graduate capable of operating effectively in a French or German speaking environment, let us now turn our attention to the European dimension of the degree: the Year Abroad.

One of the most ambitious aims of any collaborative enterprise is that the heteroclite elements being set together in the venture should somehow become integrated into one harmonious, homogeneous whole. In the case of an undergraduate degree programme such as this, one cannot simply throw the syllabi on the table and sit back in the pious hope that the students will spontaneously be able to "read the runes" and make their own synthesis. In NIHE Dublin we concluded that this synthesis or integraton had to be engineered, and that the most obvious stage of the progremme to achieve it was the third year. We did toy with the idea of having some of the business syllabi in Year 2 taught through French and German, but rejected it for two very simple reasons. We felt that a sound grasp of both the foreign language and the business studies concepts was an essential requirement and this would not have been achieved by the end of first year, and an even more obvious obstacle was the shortage of suitably qualified academic staff! So it was in the course of one academic year, spent either in France or in Germany, that we were to attempt the fusion of foreign language and international marketing studies in our students' minds.

In theory this all appears fiendishly simple. You send your students to a comparable foreign university, where the acadmeic programmes are broadly speaking similar to your own, and hve them take a package of courses in business subjects that will consolidate and deveop what they have already learnt with you, and eventually prepare them for their advanced marketing studies of final year. In addition to these business classes, you would also expect your students to take courses in language and area studies.

Our aim, therefore, in developing the concept of the Year Abroad has been to consider this period of studying a foreign university as a formal, integral part of the 4 year programme. We feel that it is of vital importance that our students are offically registered at the foreign institution so that they enjoy the same status as the local students. It is also crucial that the courses they follow should be the normal courses offered to all students, rather than special programmes designed for foreign visitors. Our graduates will, after all, find themselves competing in the business world with graduates of the very French or German universities where they have spent their year. Why should we artifically cushion them against the first real opportunity they have to measure themselves against the opposition? Of course this has to be done very carefully, after having given a lot of thought to the strengths and weaknesses of the particular student. If the challenge of a particular coure element at the foreign university is linguistically or conceptually too great for the visiting student, he or she may very quickly become demotivated and demoralized. Let us not forget that "cultural shock" can oftern transform some of the most straightforward tasks into a nightmare for the innocent abroad.

We were acutely aware, when we first planned this degree, of the need ot maintain a particularly delicate balance between academic study and practical experience. Our second aim for the Year Abroad has, therefore, been to give the students the opportinity to put some of the knowledge they have gained in their first two years of business studies to some practical use. This is where the 3rd year Project comes in. During the year each student is expected to research a topic in the field of intenational marketing, and to write up his or her findings in the form of a minor thesis. Originally, we had hoped that this could have been a single piece of work written in the foreign language: in other words, documentary proof of the student's ability to synthesise the two sides of the degree. It was, as I have already mentioned, our inability to appoint business staff with foreign language competence that caused us to abandon this idea. A further objection was that, in an Irish context, very few of the potential employers of our future graduates would be capable of reading a thesis written in French or German, and we felt that the thesis could be a useful adjunct to the students' curriculum vitae. (This absence of foreign language skills amongst Irish businessmen was, incidentally, further vindication that we were on the right track with our degree concept!) In our current structure, therefore, the student writes a 10,000 word thesis in English, supplemented by a 4,000 word synopsis in his or her major language. To date we have tried to ensure that the thesis is not a library based activity, but that it involves the student interaccively with the foreign industrial and commercial sectors, and with the consumers (through questionnaires and market research surveys).

There is, of course, one element of practical experience which is still missing at least from the formal structure of our programme, and that is the industrial placement. In retrospect, we ought perhaps to have tried to build this in right from the very start, but we did not... for a variety of reasons. I suppose, as an academic and a linguist, I felt it was preferable to establish the principle of the Year Abroad initally in an academic framework, in the expectation that a strong structure of foreign university links would give us a platform on which to build future elements of industrial placement. Also, it must be said, the sheer enormity of the task of setting up exchange contracts with six separate insitituions made the search for industrial placements a real impossibility. Now that we are more established and have more staff involved in the programme, the industrial placement is a more realistic item on our agenda.

It might well seem ingenuous to have opted for links with six foreign universities and then to complain about the burden of work involved. There is, however, no way that we could have achieved our objectives by sending larger groups of students to fewer centres. A group of 6-8 Irish students going to Dortmund University, for example, stands a reasonable chance of being easily absorbed and integrated into the general student body. A much larger group runs the risk of becoming inward-looking and self-sufficient. The larger group is also often quite undesirable from the point of view of the host university, for which it causes logistic problems of class size, staff involvement, and physical accommodation.

As I have already pointed out, the process of setting up these foreign links seems very simple in theory. In practice it proved to be a lot more difficult than we had imagined. From one point of view, it was quite an advantage to be in a start-up situation. We did not have other languagee programmes already running, so there was time to devote to the planning and development of this new concept. In other ways it was a handicap. None of our business staff had any previous knowledge of continental European business schools, and none had any foreign language competence. Knowledge of foreign universities among the language staff was restricted to the area of their own academic research interests, and my own experience of placing students in continental universities had been gained mostly in the languages/humanities area. It was, therefore, going to be something of a problem identifying appropriate potential partner institutions. We needed to learn, and learn fast, about business education at university level in France and Germany.

The cultural services of the French and German embassies proved very willing to assist us, and were able to provide directories listing all colleges together with the degrees and diplomas they offered. Beyond this, however, the embassies could provide nothing of immediate help, which was hardly surprising since their cultural services had for decades been geared up to support the activities of the traditional universities. The idea of a year at a foreign university as an integral part of a degree programme was enough of a novelty in itself, without the added complexity of business studies! So, it was up to us to select our own targets. This was 1981. Our first group of students was scheduled to go abroad in October 1983. In so far as Germany was concerned, we identified three centres where Marketing seemed to feature prominently: the Business Faculties of the Universities of Cologne, Dortmund and the Technische Hochschule Aachen. Very early in the process of information exchange, our colleagues in Aachen withdrew from the running because they felt that our respective degree structures were incompatible. We then contacted the University of Trier, were received favourably, and since then our three German partners have remained Cologne, Dortmund and Trier.

One of the early difficulties, and this was as true for France as it was for Germany, was the lack of knowledge about NIHE Dublin. Not only did we have to sell our German colleagues the concept of a degree in Languages and International Marketing (for which they had no real parallel), but we had to convince them not only to receve students from, but also send their own students to a brand new institution that they had never heard of. Although I did not think of it this way at the time, this was my first experiecne of the practice of marketing and selling! If a genuine exchange was going to take place, then we also had to persuade the foreign student to come to Dublin: no easy task, since his degree programme does not include a mandatory period of study abroad.

In the case of Dortmund and Trier, the task was made less difficult by the fact that we were dealing with two relatively young universities. Dortmund, which incidentally turned out to have the first Chair of International

Marketing created in Germany, responded very quickly and positively to our overtures and we had a formal exchange contract signed with them inside a year. Trier reacted with equal enthusiasm, though has not to date felt that there was any advantage to be gained from having a formal written agreement. Both universities received students from Dublin in 1983-84, and by the following year had generated sufficient interest in our exchange scheme for the 1984-85 session to work on a totally reciprocal basis. The presence at NIHE Dublin of this group of German students has contributed greatly to the motivation and the "international" identity of our own Irish students on the 1st and 2nd years of their degree.

In the case of Cologne, we have experienced a slight difficulty which is affecting the global administration and coordination of the Year Abroad. Cologne University is an old established, highly prestigeous monolith. Its Business Faculty has four times as many students as the current total student population at NIHE Dublin. It is involved in a great many exchange arrangements of its own with other foreign universities, and while it has been quite willing to accept our students on an informal basis, (i.e. where the agreement is a personal one centring on the Professor of Marketing rather than a corporate one based on Faculty or University).

In the first instance, in 1983-84. they were quite happy to recive a group of our students, but did not have any interest in sending some of their own students to Dublin. The presence, however, of a small contingent of Irish students in Cologne University had its effect on the German student population, and the University's Academisches Auslandsamt was flooded with enquiries from students wishing to study at NIHE Dublin. So in the current session, we now have reciprocity - but on a semi-unofficial level. It will become evident, from the concluding sections of my presentation, why this sort of arrangement is less than satisfactory.

When it came to the French universities, we had an amazing piece of good fortune just as we were about to being our search in 1981. A representative of ESSCA (the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Commerciales d'Angers) was then touring Irish universities in search of a possible student exchange link. The prospect of NIHE's cooperation with ESSCA was greatly enhanced by the lack of response to their initiative evinced by our counterparts in the more traditional universities. Other factors which played a decisive role in bringing the two institutions togetrher were similar vocational professional thrust in their philosophies, common commitment to the international dimension, smiliarities in course content, and the not altogether negligeable fact that both the principal negotiators were linguists. A formal contract between NIHE and ESSCA was signed in 1982, and, very much like our links with Dortmund and Trier, this has proved to be a model in international cooperation.

Our second French link is the the Institut Universitaire de Technologie of the Claude Bernard University in Lyon. This again has proved to be an excellent link. The great attraction of the IUT's in France is their vocational orientation, and IUT Lyon enjoys an excellent reputation for its relationship with French industry and commerce. In terms of the administration and coordination of our exchange everything has run extrremely smoothly. The only problem we have is that, for the moment at least, the IUT's only run a two year cycle towards a diploma that is equal in standing to the DEUG. While the quality of this two year programme is identical to that of the first two years of university studies, the IUT cannot on its own proivide 3rd or 4th year courses to stretch and challenge the more able among the students we send out. The most obvious solution to this problem is for our students to continue taking the majority of their courses at the IUT, but to supplement these with more advanced programmes from the university itself. This does not even become a "political" problem, since all the IUT staff are employed to lecture at Lyon university as well as the IUT.

Our third French connection has proved to be the most difficult of all our foreign university links. I think it might be useful to stress here that none of the difficulties we have encountered can in any way be attributed to a lack of interest or of goodwill on the part of the universities with which we have been dealing, so when I speak of "difficulties", I intend no inferred criticism or blame. The Institut des Etudes Commerciales of Grenoble University, which has a very strong interest in Marketing, very generously agreed to take 2 of our students on a unilateral basis in 1983-84, and a further two in the current session in return for a 6 month industrial placement in Ireland for one of their students. This proved administratively very difficult for us, and quite embarrassing publicly when the French student did not arrive to take up his placement! Subsequent negotiations with Grenoble to try to establish student exchange reciprocity are currently at an impasse over the number of students to be exchanged each year, and the respective financial burdens for the French and the Irish students.

One of the major concerns for us has always been the cost to the student of the year abroad, especially given that the expense is compulsory, not optional. To date our programme has benefitted from the fact that French and German university accommodation and restaurant charges are heavily subsidised. If we adopted, as Grenoble is proposing, an ISEP-type scheme, many of our students imply could not afford to go abroad.

This brings me logically to the question of funding an international exchange programme. There are basically two sorts of cost: the cost to the universities concerned of administring the exchange, and the cost to the student of participating in it. In 1980-81, the year in which the degree was planned, the major expense was travel to make initial contacts not only with those universities that were to become our future partners, but also to a variety of other institutions on specific fact-finding missions. The funding for this travel was provided out of the NIHE central budget, and was obviously regarded as venture capital to facilitate the development of an idea that appeared to have potential. It must be admitted here, that we were in a start-up situation and in an academic environment where innovation was encouraged. It was a truly enviable position in which to find oneself.

In the course of that first year, we submitted an application to the European Commission in Brussels for one of their Short Study Visits Grants. These grants are normally awarded to individuals (as opposed to institutions), and they are designed to help academic to meet and exchange ideas on projects of mutual interest with fellow academics in other member states of the European Community. In fact I applied for two of these grants, one in the field of languages and international marketing and, in the 1981-82 session another in the field of translating and interpreting. Certain lessons may be learned from the fact that I was successful with the former, but not with the latter.

If one assumes that the quality of the preparation of both applications was equal (i.e. valid project, reasonable budget and time scale, genuine preliminary contacts established), then one might be tempted to conclude that the Commission favoured the marketing project over the translating project. Another possibility is that they simply wanted to ensure that their monies would be spread across a wider spectrum of colleges. This means that you may have an excellent idea that needs funding, but is is either not fashionable or perhaps too fashionable. Before seeking funds, know your field and your competition. Also be aware that a first refusal may simply mean they like your idea, but for a variety of reasons they cannot support you this year. The secret is to do your homework beforehand. Nobody is going to subsidise you on a speculative jaunt to Europe "to look at a few business schools".

This is borne out by the fact that the second round of visits to France and Germany, under the Short Study Visit scheme, resulted in student exchange agreements with three of the six universities visited. When, in 1982, we applied again to the Commission for the next stage of support - a Joint Study Programme Grant, we in fact received two of these (one for our link with Dortmund/Lyon, the other for the ESSCA link). Both Joint Study Programme grants were renewed for the current academic year, and they have proved invaluable in permitting staff mobility between the partner universities, and (as a new development this year) in providing a small amount of financial support to all students participating in the exchange.

There is also, in our experience at least, evidence to suggest that once your programme hss begun to attract money, it will continue to do so. This will not necessarily happen spontaneously. Our first example of this is a scholarship awarded to a 3rd year student of our programme by Irish Shell. This was set up in 1982 to mark the 75th jubilee of the company, and came about as a result of a series of wide ranging discussions that had taken place between Shell and the NIHE. Shell decided that they wanted to mark theirjubilee by supporting an aspect of university level education. Their scholarship was to be offered each year for three years beginning in 1982-83. Clearly, the intention to support the field of education had to be present in Shell to begin with, but it is equally evident that the credibility of the languages and international marketing concept had also to be very firmly present in NIHE Dublin. If it had not, Shell would not have taken the risk. The important lesson here is that your academic programme has to be able to stand up to the severest scrutiny from the leaders of industry and commerce.

The most recent development in the area of student sponsorshop for our degree came last year when we received an approach from an external organisation anxious to be involved in supporting our programme. This was indeed progress! We had started off going out looking for money: now money was coming along looking for us! This organisation was Foir Teoranta, a semi-state body whose main function is to provide financial and managerial support to companies that are having difficulties. The Foir Teoranta sponsorship takes two forms. Firstly, a scholarship to one student through the 3rd and 4th years of the degree, and secondly the sponsorship of a mature student through all four years of the programme. In both instances Foir Teoranta will also place the successful graduate in either their own organisation, or in one of their subsidiary companies, for a two year internship upon graduation. Again, a brief description grossly oversimplifies the process by which this organisation, like Shell, vetted the NIHE in general and this degree programme in particular. The academic cannot go into such a process unprepared. You have to know how much money your programme requires, exactly what it is going to be used for, and have ten good reasons why the people on the other side of the negotiating table should decide to support your course rather than put their money to some other use. It helps considerably if your own university has a department solely concerned with the interface with industry. This we have in NIHE Dublin in the form of our Industrial Liaison Unit.

The funding we have received from these different sources has enabled us to place our students abroad, and to develop the links we have established with our partner institutions in France and Germany. But no amount of financial aid can make a programme work if the will to cooperate is not present amont the different partners. An indication that such a common will exists is that we are currently on the point of awarding to every student who participates in our exchange programme a Certificate in International Business Studies. The certificate, which will be jointly validated by all the partner institutions, will be issued to the student who has successfully completed a course of study at the host university. Of course we realise that this idea raises a number of problems. While all the Irish students spend a full year in France or Germany, the period spent by the French or German students in Dublin currently ranges from 6 weeks to a complete year. The whole question of equivalences between French, German and Irish qualificatins will have to be taken into consideration too. We have concluded, nonetheless, that the creation of an initial certificate - imperfect as it may be - is a worthwhile achievement in itself, and a clear indication of our future intentions.

The difficulty that we now face is that we have a semi-formal network of seven different university level institutions across three different countries. While the students involved in this international exchange programme may all be loosely grouped together under a common umbrella of European Business studies, the degree programmes on which they are registered at their home universities tend to vary in content. There are, however, two common threads: the study of International Marketing, and the study of the language and the civilisation of a foreign country. What we are striving towards, as a long term objective, is a common academic programme in International Marketing - an agreed syllabus devised by a team of lecturers from each of our seven universities, which would be taught in all seven campuses so that, for example, a German or a French student could decide to take that particular element of his/her degree in Dublin in the knowledge that the programme would be identical to its German or French version. But that is long-term planning, and we and our partners may find that other, quite different, modes of cooperation are more feasible or more desirable as time goes on.

We are unequivocally committed to a shorter term objective, and one on which I should ike to conclude my presentation. The thing, for us, that is essential in our student exchange is that our degree programmes should acquire a European dimension. In the case of NIHE Dublin's Languages and International

Marketing degree we have tried to ensure this by sending our students off in small groups to six European universities, and by receiving French and German students in Dublin in return. What, however, we would be very anxious to achieve is the intreaction between all of the separate experiences gained by each group of students. In respect of our own Irish students, we had originally though that they would have the opportunity to pool their various learning experiences from France and Germany in the course of their final year of studies back in Dublin. That has not been entirely successful, mainly because of the need for the student to readjust back into his/her native culture and to concentrate on tackling the intellectual challenges of the new 4th year syllabi rather than reflecting on third year. Another important element that was missing from this scenario was the presence of the French and German students who had been in dublin while our students were abroad. It became evident that there was a real need for us to reinforce the experience of the Year Abroad for all the students involved, and to demonstrate in a formal way that the European dimension of this educational experience was something that we wanted to stress explicitly - rather than hoping that it would simply emerge implicitly from what we were trying to do.

Before we had even begun to grapple with the implications of this problem a potential solution presented itself to us quite out of the blue. The managers of the newly created Irish Institute of European Affairs in Louvain, near Brussels approached all of the universities in Ireland, inviting them to suggest ways in which they could make use of the IIEA's magnificent campus. It is a former Franciscan seminary completely refurbished, which offers hotel standard accommodation for almost 90 people, and includes lecture theatre and seminar rooms. In addition, it is located within 5 minutes' walk of the Catholic University of Louvain and has access to all its library, computing and laboratory facilities.

The plan that we are currently exploring with our European partners is that we should use the IIEA campus as a focal point for our exchange programme. There are two ways in which this could happen. Firstly,we might consider running a short, 1-2 week, orientation programme for all the exchange students before they go to take up residence in their chosen foreign university. This could cover specific issues related to each group of students, (such as the economy of Ireland or France or Germany: aids to survival in the foreign environment, etc), and it could also deal with the global concept of European integration as the context in which the exchange was taking place. Certainly this would be useful, since it is our experience that the student can never be too well prepared for cultural shock. The second possible format would entail an end of exchange seminar, again lasting between one and three weeks, which would attempt to effect a synthesis of the separate Irish, French and German educational experiences of the Year Abroad. Many of the students would have been involved in research projects during their year, and this could prove a fruitful area for workshops or round table discussions. There are undoubtedly other possibilities, projects we have not yet dreamed of, which may well emerge from future meetings between colleagues from our seven universities, and from sharing our experiences, our successes and failures, with fellow academics elsewhere. It was for that reason that I chose to entitle this presentation "Into the melting pot", for one surely cannot enter into the field of international educational cooperation in the expectation of emerging at the other end with one's own preconceptions totally intact!

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APPENDIX

Titles of projects written by NIHE students during their year abroad

A Review of the French Advertising Market.

A Study of the Metro and its Impact on the People.

A Study of a Potential German Market Segment in Respect of the Irish Tourist Industry.

A Review of the Market Trends for Demersal Fish in the Brittany region.

A Review of the Element of Strategy involved in the Marketing of the Wines of Anjou-Saumur with particular reference to Saumur d'Origine.

A Review of the Potential for Irish beef in France.

Consumer Organisation and Protection in the Federal Republic of Germany.

A Review and Analysis of the Irish Consumer Image in Germany.

An Analysis of Recent Trends in the German Cigarette Industry.

A Review of the Marketing Process of Goats Cheese in the Loire Valley Region.

A Study of the Irish Craft Shops in France, and of a sample Lyon population so that the potential of an Irish craft shop in Lyon could be assessed.

The Implications for Irish Exporters of Manufacturer and Dealer Branding on the West German Market.

A Review of the Role of the Activities of Consumer-Orientated Organisations in influencing Consumers in West Germany.

Regional Advertising Strategies of Two Brands of Dortmunder Beer.

The role of Marketing in the French Political System with particular reference to the 1984 European Elections.

Petrol Stations as a Distribution Outlet in France.

That Lyon as an Industrial Location is Recognised by Irish Entrepreneurs.

A Market Potential Analysis of the Sale of Irish Manufactured Brass Interior Lamps in the Ruhr Region of West Germany.

Ireland as a Holiday Destination for the Youth of Grenoble.

A Review of State Export Promotion in The Federal Republic of Germany.

MORE OPTIONS FOR THE 80's: AN INTERDISCIPLINARY MODEL FOR TEACHING LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS

By

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A frontier is a border that separates one group of people from another and must be crossed before interaction can occur. The word "frontier" is also used to describe uncharted territory where new ideas germinate. In addition, "frontier" suggests the most advanced achievement attained in a particular field of knowledge. Broadening your frontier of knowledge, understanding and achievement should not be thought of as a problem to be solved once and for all but rather as an ongoing intergral part of the educational process-- a "sharing", if you will, of ideas with others in a variety of areas of expertise. The development of specific programs on the university level to prepare for international employment possibilities or to enhance the job opportunities in our own country can be achieved only through cooperation between the foreign language departments and other departments across campus. The majority of students today are looking for an education that will provide them with career skills. Foreign language educators and students must learn to relate to other fields of endeavor, to communicate beyond the limits of their own discipline and to apply new modes of dealing with the realities of other cultures.

Career education is much broader than vocational education. It is a program which should help all students to understand themselves and to develop their interests, abilities and values. While it is partly learning about educational and training opportunities, career education is also a matter of viewing the whole person and seeing personal development as a life-long process, including accepting the need for retraining and re-education. It involves making personal and career choices and becoming qualified for a career. All our young people need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most of our College-level students need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

The connection between foreign languages and jobs in business and industry may not be obvious to those who assume that foreign languages are used only by translators, interpreters, and language teachers. With advances in transportation and communications and with expanding population and markets, the interests of more and more firms-- both here and abroad-- have become international and even worldwide. The economic independence of nations is irreversible, and neither large nor small businesses can afford to ignore foreign possibilities. It is true that English is the most widely used language in international trade, but it is far from universal. Today's undergraduate population is still as ready as it ever was to be challenged and provoked by the form and content of foreign language study. That to which students often react adversel y, however, is the narrow grammatical perspective through which the foreign language is traditionally presented. Competence in dealing with a foreign language, particularly in the era in which we live, can only be achieved through the language's relevancy to the job market and its integration with other disciplines-- i.e., a comprehensive view of all its cultural manifestations and its direct application to a particular field of study.

It is only normal that we be reticent to abandon the sure knowledge of our academic specialty and hesitate to plunge into a field with which we are less familiar. But the traditional delimitations between courses no longer satisfy students, and a growing number of faculty are questioning their appropriateness. Indeed, if we really believe in our discipline as a pillar of the liberal education which we hope to offer our college students, then do we not also have the obligation to demonstrate its versatility and universality? Isolation and compartmentalization would clearly be counterproductive in this respect. The greater the number of associations made between foreign languages and other disciplines, the wider is the range of possibilities for it to assume its magnificent protean role. The combinations are virtually limitless for expanding and reforming departmental offerings. The versatility of the course possibilities outlined here lies primarily in the wide range of audiences to which it may be aimed. The broadest of these groups would be composed of non-specialists in foreign kanguages. Here, the course of study could be presented under the aegis of our language departments, or as a part of a general college humanities requirement, or as a special course offered in a residential college program.

PROPOSED SAMPLE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CORE CURRICULUM:

FL Grammar & Composition
FL Conversation
FL Culture/Civilization
FL Literature (Readings & Textual Commentaries)
FL Phonetics & Phonology/Contrastive Structures of FL & English
***** INTERNSHIP: Research Assistant/ Teaching Assistant/
Study Abroad Co-Coordinator
Off-Campus Field Experience
***** INTER-DISCIPLINARY COMPLEMENT (Minor)

The national needs for increased productivity and a literate and well-trained populace puts an increase in the demands for relevant education and new educational approaches. In the coming decades, education must make significant changes in order to respond to these demands through reallocating funds, generating new capital and developing innovative educational approaches. A more intensified crisis in education is imminient within this time frame due to the inordinate slowness of market adjustment in terms of successful adoptions of product innovations and client demand identification (i.e., particularly in the area of current computer technology). The education area is currently suffering from conditions describable as a "discrepant market" (i.e., a market in disequilibrium) in terms of keeeping up with technological advances applicable to educational needs. As marketing strategy for the educational community, seminars should be planned between the community job market and the academic core of administrators, educators and students. Such interactive communications should be geared toward assisting in the analysis, planning, implementation and control of carefully formulated programs designed to bring about voluntary exchanges of values with the target market for the purpose of achieving organizational objectives. Such a strategy of constructive dialogue between the community job market and the educational system demonstrates an interest in designing course offerings with the needs and desires of the target markets in mind. In addition, such an effective means of open exchange informs, motivates and services both the target job markets and the educational community. Such seminars might prove instrumental in the long run in helping to set new educational standards, in opening the way for the consideration of new methodologies, and perhaps in coordinating currcula among institutions.

As we have already seen, the goals of career education have expanded well beyond that of merely providing our students with a saleable skill. Some career education objectives can be stated as follows:

1. Students need to be prepared for the inevitability of change in themselves and in society during both youth and adulthood.
2. Students need information about themselves-- their values, interests, abilities and needs.
3. Students need to learn the characteristics of and requirements for various occupations.
4. Students need to learn how their own interests, abilities, needs, and values relate to the world of work and to specific occupations.
5. Students need various kinds of skills: numerical, communication, manual, perceptual, information-processing, decision-making, and interpersonal.
6. Students need positive attitudes toward work combined with effective work habits.
7. Students need to realize the dignity of all work.

A major problem in our educational system is the development of specific programs on the university level to prepare for those international employment possibilities. Part of this problem can be solved through cooperation between foreign language departments and the other department(s) in question. A difficult but not impossible task is to sit down with people from allied health, for example, and work out a sample student schedule allowing time for language and allied health courses. The second part of the problem, however, has to do with a more pressing question: exactly what sort of foreign language courses are most important to the language student wishing to major in social work or political science or economics or journalism or business?

Perhaps the "task analysis" approach to curricular reform can best answer this type of question. This approach involves tailoring courses and curricula to meet the specific future vocational needs of students. It implies a career-oriented emphasis in much of the liberal arts curriculum. In language departments, the "task analysis" approach finds its realization in the development of so-called "special-purpose" language courses designed to meet the needs for specific clientele. "Spanish for social workers" or "Spanish for law enforcement officers" are among the more popular options in this genre.

Why do curricular or pedagogical innovations so often fail on the drawing board or after only a relatively short period of operation? Let me suggest a number of reasons here. The emphasis is again on innovations in higher education, but many of the points are applicable to the secondary school as well.

1. A lack of sustained institutional support. Most innovations in curriculum or pedagogy require institutional support. The classroom faculty member alone is usually not in a position to decide upon or adopt innovative curricular goals or even to develop an innovative course without institutional cooperation. Such cooperation is often fiscal, but always needs to be attitudinal. Fiscal cooperation is facilitated by the existence of so-called "soft money," i.e., grants from educational agencies or foundations for the purpose of starting up an innovation. Innovation may also evaporate. Sustained financial support for innovation is not only increasingly harder to come by, but also institutions themselves are often expected to pick up the costs of maintaining a new program after the first year or two.

2. A lack of time for faculty to prepare. Changes in curricular or pedagogical procedures signify a change in the educational status quo. Any change in the educational status quo is likely to fail if the faculty have not been trained to deal with the implications of that change, and if they have not been given sufficient time to prepare themselves for the change.

3. Faculty fears of new programs or procedures. Many innovations in education are intimidating to faculty for a variety of reasons. Educators often get accustomed to certain set procedures and are loath to change. There is also in many minds the danger that a new procedure, if successful, could jeopardize one's employment. Electromechanical technology has been slow to become adopted in the classroom in part due to the fear of many faculty that they may be replaced by a machine.

4. The tendency of a regression toward the mean of established programs. The distinctive features of many curricular or pedagogical innovations have a tendency to become eroded by existing and long-standing programs and practices. After a short period of experimentation, innovative features are often tempered to reflect more closely the established practices and prejudices of the faculty.

Following is a listing of possible course combinations of an interdisciplinary nature which might be combined with the foreign language(s) with a specific profession as a goal orientation. Such suggestions are meant to attract students to the study of foreign language from a practical viewpoint rather than trap them in a foreign language requirement.

INTERDISCIPLINARY MODELS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND PROFESSIONS:

FL-Economics-International Trade
FL-Political Science-History
FL-International Management-Foreign Relations/Psychology
FL-Allied Health Field-FL Culture/Civilization
FL-Marketing/Management-Economics
FL-Economic & Political Geography-Diplomatic Correspondence (Foreign Service)
FL-Money & Banking-Commercial Correspondence
FL-International Law-Diplomatic History
FL-Translation Technique-Linguistics/Diplomatic Correspondence

Other Combinations: Studies have been made of the incidence of various college majors to combine the following with foreign language skills (Ranked in order of frequency):

Business Asministration/Management
Marketing/Sales
Engineering
Secretarial Skills
Finance
International Relations
Accounting
Economics
Clerical Skills
Communications
Law
Public Relations
Advertising
Data Processing
English Language Skills
Civil Engineering
Journalism
Area Studies
Statistics
Psychology
Library Skills
Cultural Studies
Public Administration
Sociology
Political Science
Fine Arts

Proficiency Testing in Languages for Business.

A student cannot merely be declared to be competent in communication in a foreign language. The functions which he is competent to express must be specified. In the descriptions of proficiency in each of the four language skills and culture in the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) guidelines, function, context, and accuracy are all interwoven. Judgments of an individual's proficiency, made by comparing performance with the descriptions, take all three factors into account. A proficiency-oriented program trains students to use the language outside the classroom, independently of the materials and activities of the course.

The one-solution method of the 1960's is reflected most dramatically in the proliferation of methods and approaches that developed in reaction to it in the 1970's: cognitive methodology, the confluent approach, total physical response, suggestopedia, the natural approach, individualized instruction, the counseling-learning model, the silent way, and finally, the eclectic method, which embraced none exclusively yet all generally of the above. Team teaching, the multi-disciplinary approach to languages with cooperative interaction with the business community must be the method of the 1980's and beyond at least until the close of the century.

In every endeavor in our society the knowledge of another language is invaluable. Students trained in foreign languages can enter professions related to government, business, social services, the arts and sciences, education and the media. At the same time, they are better citizens of the world because they are sensitive to other cultures and civilizations. Their training in foreign languages, increases their capacity for analytical thought, skillful writing and meaningful communication. It also enhances their appreciation of human values, develops their self-esteem, Since such people are the hope of tomorrow, we must begin their training in foreign languages today. Since the technologically-oriented world in which we live demands versatility and multiple skills in the job market, students with foreign language competency must combine their language ability with other appropriate skills.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

May 2-4, 1985

PART III

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

TOOLS OF THE TRADE: VIDEO AND LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

By

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Languages for Business and the Professions
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TOOLS OF THE TRADE: VIDEO AND LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

A Fable

Once upon a time there were two pigs (a third one had gone into marketing and disappeared) who were faced with the problem of protecting themselves from a wolf.

One pig was an old-timer in the wolf-fending business, and he saw the problem right away--just build a house strong enough to resist the huffing and puffing he had experienced before. So, the first pig built his wolf-resistant house right away out of genuine, reliable lath and plaster.

The second pig was green at this wolf business, but he was thoughtful. He decided he would analyze the wolf problem a bit. He sat down and drew up a matrix (which, of course, is pig latin for a big, blank sheet of paper) and listed the problem, analyzed the problem into components and possibilities of wolf strategies, listed the design objectives of his wolf-proof house, determined the functions that his fortress should perform, designed and built his house, and waited to see how well it worked.

All this time, the old-timer pig was laughing at the planner pig and vehemently declined to enter into this kind

> of folly. He had built wolf-proof houses before, and he had lived and prospered, hadn't he? He said to the planner pig, "If you know what you are doing, you don't have to go through all that jazz," and with this, he went fishing, or rooting, or whatever it is that pigs do in their idle hours.
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> The second pig worked his system anyway, and went about designing for contingencies.
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> One day the mean old wolf passed by the two houses...He thought that a pig dinner was just what he wanted. He walked up to the first pig's house and uttered a warning to the old-timer, which was roundly rejected as usual. With this, the wolf, instead of huffing and puffing, pulled out a sledge hammer, knocked the door down, and ate the old-timer for dinner.
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> Still not satiated, the wolf walked to the planner pig's house and repeated his act. Suddenly, a trap door in front of the house opened, the wolf dropped neatly into a deep, dark pit never to be heard from again. Morals: 1) They are not making wolves like they used to; 2) It's hard to teach old pigs new tricks, and 3) If you want to keep the wolf away from your door, you'd better plan ahead.

This irreverent fable by R.A. Kaufman (Corrigan, R.E. and R.A. Kaufman 1) can easily be viewed as a thinly disguised docu-drama of what is happening in education today. They may indeed not be making wolves like they used to, but neither are the wolves of education, the critics, merely huffing and puffing as usual to blow down the house that education built. Armed with one educational assessment report[1] after another, education's critics are pulling out the sledge hammer of accusation and pounding away with charges of "arid teaching... and self-serving curriculums..." (Scully 1) in an attempt to knock down the traditional, teacher-centered methods of instruction, and thereby, force the schools to respond creatively to the unprecedented and fundamental changes that are taking place in our society and the world of the 1980's and beyond.

The current attacks on education are not like the huffing and puffing criticism of the past, and those of us who are laboring in the vineyards of education dare not cling to the same old, reliable "lath and plaster" of the ancient lecture methods--albeit, a pruned, stronger one, jazzed up with a film here and a slide show there--to help us weather the "slings and arrows" of outrageous critics. In education's "collective unconscious," there is the disquieting feeling that this time, the critics will not go away; that this time, if we educators do not begin the long, overdue reformation of education, even more of our students (currently about half) who start college will never finish; even more of our best and brightest high school seniors (currently about one eighth) will not bother coming to college at all, and--whether we admit it or not--even more of the students currently enrolled in our classes will drop out, suffering from student disengagement--a phenomenon the National Institute of Education (in its report, Involvement in Learning[2]) identifies as the thread that runs so true in the college experience as a whole.

Are there any of us here today who have not experienced student detachment and indifference? Are there any of us here who have not had students--bodily in our classrooms and lecture halls--whose hearts, minds, and interests were far from us? Are there any of us here today who are not interested in re-engaging student interest in what is going on in our classrooms?

According to the N.I.E. report, the key to student re-engagement is to treat them like fellow learners, involve them more fully in academic life, and increase ways in which learners can contribute to their own as well as others' learning. Specifically, the report suggests the following: 1) that teachers become more accessible to students; 2) that teachers measure student progress more carefully; 3) that teachers change and improve their teaching methods, and 4) that teachers use technology.

Using two of the N.I.E. suggestions--improving university teaching and using technology--as starting points, this presentation proposes the possibility that in languages for business and the professions, the systematic integration and use of video--the planner pig approach of the fable--can carry the main instructional load, can offer teachers an improved teaching method, and, by increasing ways in which learners contribute creatively to their own as well as others' learning, can re-engage and captivate the interest of students.

Specifically, it is the aim of this presentation to show how video in the commercial language classroom can: 1) provide ample opportunity for active use of the commercial target language (CTL) in a wide range of contexts; 2) promote the integration of cultural understanding in CTL communicative behaviors, and 3) improve the objectivity and emphasis of evaluation. For the purpose of this presentation, 'video' is defined as the recording and playback of videotapes produced by the learner, and 'languages for business and the professions' are seen in the larger context of acquiring CTL culture and communicative behaviors as opposed to the narrow and limited acquisition of specialized business and professional vocabularies.

The quest for verisimilitude, namely making instruction more concrete and real, naturally leads commercial language teachers in search of methods, materials, and techniques that will enhance active use of the CTL in context, cultural understanding in interaction, and objectivity in evaluating achievement. Whatever else we may say about methods, materials, and techniques, one thing is certain: they are all tools in the educator's bag of teaching implements; that is, they are all tools of the trade.

A tool of the trade that has been around for a long time and is just now enjoying an almost unnoticed renaissance is the instructional use of video. This "middle child" in the family of existing and emerging information technologies is no longer being overlooked in favor of its more dazzling and flashy siblings, particularly computer technology. It is this phenomenal jump in the use of video that partially answers the question 'Why video in commercial language courses...why not any one of the other technologies?' Not only is video "in," that is to say, available, but it is also user-friendly, a natural match for today's visually-conditioned learners, and it can be systematically integrated to carry the instructional load, so much so, that to paraphrase McLuhan, video is instruction inseparable from the message.

AVAILABILITY. In the approximately 81,000 schools in the U.S.A., video for the first time is beginning to crowd out interest in computing, and the instructional use of video in the schools has taken a major jump. According to Quality Education Data, a market research firm, the number of U.S. schools using video equipment for instruction grew from 36,545 schools to 56,166 in the year ending September, 1984 (Educational Technology 1). This increase is largely due to significant drops in prices for videocassette systems. A 1980 survey of educational institutions by Knowledge Industry Publications found that 60% of educational users surveyed owned 3/4" videotape machines; 54% reported having ½" equipment, and more than 16% had other formats. Eighty-six per cent had a video studio, more than 80% had editing equipment, and 85% reported having cameras (89% specified studio cameras, 85% portable or portapak cameras). Seventy-nine per cent reported color cameras and 78% black and white (Dranov, Moore, and Hickey 76-77). It appears that instructional video is coming into its own.

USER-FRIENDLY. Technology that is difficult to operate gets in the way of instruction and learning. Today's videocassette systems[3] are continually in the process of becoming easier to use. Approximately 15-20 minutes--plus equipment and instruction--gives teachers and students enough time to discover the nature and function of equipment parts. In addition to ease of operation, today's videocassette systems are transportable, light-weight, and cost-effective. Cameras usually weigh less than five pounds, the recording/playback deck--to which the camera attaches via an umbilical cord--weighs less than 15 pounds. The videotapes can be played back through a TV or a monitor. Once the basic equipment has been acquired, the day-to-day operational problems are few because, generally speaking, the equipment is rugged, and videotapes can be reused (averaging about 100 passes).

VISUAL-LANGUAGE BASE TECHNOLOGY. Most, if not all, of the students enrolled in our commercial language courses have grown up and continue to spend the majority of their time and experience in an electronic, mass media environment. They have long ago left the age of print, as it were, abandoned the primacy of linear forms of thinking, and are conditioned to learn by means of a visual language base--to communicate on an instantaneous, direct, multi-message, and multi-image level. If our instructional approach is to match the "sound-and-light" spatial thinking of our students, we cannot continue to emphasize linear, rote memorization thinking which serves only to detach students from what is happening in the classroom. As John Debes points out: "....inappropriate emphasis on...linear, rote thinking...is inappropriate not because ..educators are numbskulls, or because they are inept...but because the nature of students has changed. Mass communications have provided...vast amounts of information and many varied methods of accumulating data; they (the learners) are truly turned-on, with many channels open. Yet, teaching continues to aim along only one of those channels...." (Debes 117). Having lived with video via television virtually all of their lives, today's students are already primed for its use, and this gives student-produced video an edge in being a near-perfect match for today's visually-conditioned learners.

DO-IT-YOURSELF TECHNOLOGY. In order for video to transform courses in languages for business and the professions, it will be necessary for it to be used in a way in which it is seldom used, namely in do-it-yourself productions created by students enrolled in commercial language courses. Most often, when video is used, it is used in the passive, non-active modes of large-group viewing, small-group viewing, and individual viewing. Like film, it is used to "...present information that involves motion, describe processes, document events, and show relationships..." (Kemp 262). This traditional use of video has aided and abetted a situation that has been described by John Loughary as a "machine-independent system..." (Loughary 4). In the traditional instructional situation, we could virtually remove every machine from every classroom without significantly changing instruction or learning. This is because, according to Loughary, "...educators have used machines to assist them to achieve results which were planned independently of the machines." (Ibid). Is it any wonder that we have been able to think of technology as mere classroom aids, supplements, and adjuncts which are nice, perhaps, but not necessary?

In student-produced video for commercial language courses, video must assist us in achieving results which are planned in such a way that they depend on the video being used. Using the planner-pig approach of the fable, we must see languages for business and the professions in terms of a "systems approach" in which video is the instructional beast of burden.

How? How do we go about integrating student-produced video in languages for business and the professions? We begin by considering two procedural matters: First, the tangible externals, namely selection of equipment, organizing access, restructuring the classrooms, and integrating video in the curriculum; and secondly, we must consider the elements of course design such as problem, teaching strategies, design objectives, functions, and evaluation.

SELECTING EQUIPMENT. It is not the aim of this presentation to deal with the "nuts and bolts" of equipment selection. Many fine books exist on the subject, a selection of which can be found in the Notes at the end of this paper.[4] At the risk of belaboring the obvious, suffice it to say that four components comprise the basic videocassette system: camera, microphone, videocassette recorder (VCR), and television receiver/monitor. In addition to these basic pieces of equipment, other supplementary equipment may be necessary and desirable: a switcher if several cameras are to be used; a special effects generator if, in addition to switching among cameras, fades, dissolves, wipes, and image mixing is desired; basic editing equipment which includes a videotape player to play back recorded scenes, an editing videotape recorder with special editing features[5], editing controller for precise scene location, sync generator to stabilize all electronic signals in the system, a time-base corrector connected to the videotape player recorder to ensure acceptable picture and sound quality when mixing material from various sources, a test signal generator for signal alignment from recorders to monitors and receivers, audio and video mixers to combine materials from various tapes onto a single tape, and a title/character generator for inserting letters and numbers.

The selection of the specific video equipment for the nucleus of a portable, studio, or combination system depends on a number of factors, not the least of which is cost. In starting up a video production unit, we can project the cost of a reasonably good portable videocassette system to be in the range of $2000-$3000.[6] Even at a bare minimum, a basic studio set-up will cost about three times as much, ranging from $9000-$12,000. This is not to say that video is cheap; it is reasonable, however, and as prices continue declining, it is becoming increasingly within the reach of schools with modest budgets.

ORGANIZING ACCESS. If video is to be a tool of the learning trade, it must be readily and easily accessible to both students and teachers. That means that ideally every student has a camera; practically, it means a minimum of one portable video system or portapak for every two commercial language classrooms. How many schools can afford to provide every two commercial language classes with a portapak system?

Massachusetts Educational Television's John LeBaron answers that question when he says, "A little exercise in economics reveals a great deal...A...portable video system for every two classrooms may sound extravagant, but if we are to assume that a complete portable ensemble with a few additional accessories costs $2000, and that the two typical classrooms comprise 50 pupils, then the cost per pupil is $40.00. The life expectancy of a portapak should be at least four years if it is properly cared for. This brings the yearly cost...down to $10. Let's say that maintenance will cost an average of 12% of the purchase price per year, adding a total of $960 to the four-year life span of the portapak. This adds another $4.80...for a total cost of $14.80--approximately the cost of a school textbook. The costs estimated are deliberately high. Eight year old portapaks in good working condition can still be found." (LeBaron 149).

RESTRUCTURING THE CLASSROOM. The traditional classroom set-up--teacher up in front, textbook in hand and forty students seated in four rows of ten seats, each seat bolted to the floor--will not work for student-produced video. Ideally, commercial language classes--as well as foreign and second language classes--should be supported by a humanities electronic learning laboratory (Lindenau 119-124), where students would have reasonable access both to studio space and equipment, where students and teachers could receive instruction in the use and operation of video equipment, where production professionals would assist them in all aspects of producing video, and where the equipment would be maintained and cared for. Where such a support facility does not exist, the conventional classroom with its rows of inflexible seats will have to change to accommodate both students and equipment as both move freely about.

INTEGRATION OF VIDEO IN CURRICULUM. Plato, in the seventh book of his Republic, defines education as the business of helping each citizen develop his innate powers of vision by turning him in the right direction towards the light. Plato's view of helping everyone develop his or her own powers of vision has been overwhelmed and overshadowed in favor of the authoritarian tradition that practices teaching as a means to the end of 'filling empty vessels.' Because student-produced video takes the spotlight away from teacher-centered instruction and puts it on learner-centered study, it encounters opposition from faculty and administrators. It is never easy for teachers to go from being the center of attention as source of information to being responsible for creating a successful learning environment for students who now will take center stage with a technology that allows them to develop their own powers of vision. Just as it is not easy to teach an old-timer new tricks, it will not be easy for teachers to become managers of information. The charge that teachers end up lecturing because they are not trained nor prepared to do anything else may be hard to swallow not because it is false, but because it is true.

The second set of procedural matters that must be considered are the items of course design. In designing specifications for student-produced video, we need a theoretical framework of how students think and learn, and how this learning relates to our purpose of instruction, namely the goals and objectives of our commercial languages courses. As Ortrun Zuber-Skerrit states, "... the purpose of instruction is to facilitate--not interfere with--acquisition of instructional goals and objectives. Instruction should enhance learning, making it both effective and efficient...research findings on learning and instruction show that standard instructional methods can interfere with and actually inhibit learning, and that the students who are most successful are those who have the intellectual capacity to ignore conventionally designed instruction and learn independently of the instructor...A good understanding of how adult learning and thinking takes place is essential in the design of college and university courses." (Zuber-Skerrit 30).

It is not the aim of this presentation to be a guide to all the models and theories of human learning that have gone in and out of fashion, that is psychological models which examine the interaction between learners and their environments, and engineering models which explain human learning in terms of 'input,' 'output,' and 'message' analogous to what goes on in electronic circuits. A list of selected works on this subject can be found in the Notes at the end of this paper.[7] Regardless of which type of theoretical assumptions we hold, we need to present information to our students so that the learning we want to occur, occurs. Regardless of our communication theory orientation, we can use the planner-pig approach of the fable to design our video course house of instruction. Like the planner pig, we begin by analyzing a bit, and on a big, blank sheet of paper we: List the problem, analyze it in terms of objectives and strategies, specify functions, and evaluate the effectiveness of our course design and objectives.

PROBLEM. The learning problems facing commercial language teachers are real-life communication interactions as they occur in languages for business and the professions. For example, in an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course, the real-life communication interactions can be found in areas such as advertising strategies, buying-selling-merging a company, hiring-promoting-firing, customs laws and regulations, product development, welfare, health, law enforcement (Santana ix), etc. Each real-life communication interaction is further broken down into units, each with a basic learning objective or goal.

Basic Learning Objective. For each component unit of the larger CTL communication interaction, we must state what it is we want our students to be able to do as a result of having studied the unit. For example, a basic objective in a unit on commercials in an ESP course could be stated as follows: Students will be able to identify and manipulate a popular theme in commercials. In addition to this basic objective, such a unit also has a number of specific objectives.

Specific Objectives. Specific objectives focus on *how* students will demonstrate mastery of the basic objective. Going back to our previous example of a unit on commercials, we could state specific objectives for it as follows: Students will be able to: 1) plan, script, record, playback, and evaluate a 30 or 60-second commercial on the theme "Be good to yourself;" 2) evaluate their student-produced commercials in terms of visual, verbal, and non-verbal communication factors, and show how non-verbal signals communicate in commercials. Staying with our example of commercials in ESP, let us look next at possible teaching strategies in terms of what could appear in the teacher's lesson plans.

Possible Teaching Strategies. Students are to view selected--and teacher-previewed--Tab, Geritol, and L'Oreal commercials, copies of which have been placed on reserve at the language learning center, the library, and the student center. In addition, students are to read *How To Be Your Own Best Friend*, analyzing the relationship between people being told to be good to themselves on the advice of a book and how they can be *shown* the very same thing quite effectively with a product. Furthermore, students will also read *Be My Guest* for an examination of the concept of how we can best serve ourselves by serving others. The teacher outlines and explains the student-produced, 60-second commercials that will serve as the culmination of the unit. In addition, the teacher divides the class into groups of five; each group will research, plan, script, record, and present a commercial for a real or imagined product woven around the theme of "Be good to yourself." Individually, each student will prepare a "storyboard" of a possible commercial; then each group will develop a shooting script for the final unit project. For students who need to refresh their memories concerning video basics, the following references are on reserve in the library: John LeBaron's Making Television, chapters 1 and 2; Fuller, Kanaba, and Kanaba's Single-Camera Video Production, chapters 1 and 2; and Peter Utz' Video User's Handbook, 2nd ed., chapters 5,6,8,14, and 16. Students are encouraged to view selected titles from The Bellcrest Story, Bid for Power, and ESP Business which are available at the language learning center. Also on reserve: The Complete Handbook of Business English and The Book of Business Knowledge.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES. Besides commercials, what other types of learning activities can commercial language teachers work into their lesson plans that will help students achieve instructional objectives and as a result, function as near-native speakers of the commercial target language? Do-it-yourself video activities in languages for business and the professions are of two, general types: student activities and teacher functions.

Student activities. The following activities--and different versions of them--can be undertaken by commercial language students in order for them to practice target language communication behaviors in business or professional situations:

1) Simulation games--realistic imitations, contrived models of CTL communication interactions (the next best thing to being there);
2) Teaser Scenarios--brief, one-minute (student-produced or commercially) videos showing a business or professional speaking situation which stops mid-sequence...students must come up with appropriate and suitable completion videos from each character's point of view;
3) Roleplays--'little plays' in which students assume various identities and roles in selected CTL communication interactions which are recorded and played back for evaluation;

4) Mime Scenarios--videos without sound to illustrate non-verbal CTL communication interactions;

5) Talk Show Take-offs--video versions of popular talk show formats where students research and role play prominent business and professional people who are interviewed by one or several hosts;

6) Commercials (Spoof-Commercials and Counter-Commercials)--15, 30, and 60-second spots researched, scripted, and recorded by students for real or imaginary products or services; comic versions of well-known or famous commercials that spoof a product or service; counter-commercials that show an opposite point of view of a popular spot;

7) There are many other activities that can be devised depending upon the topic being covered and the 'personality' of the class. Teachers and students are bound only by the limits of their creativity.

Teacher functions. In do-it-yourself, student-produced video in the commercial language classroom, teachers are not dispensers of information but information gatekeepers, information managers, and diagnosticians-counselors-tutors. Their new functions in each of these capacities are as follows: As information gatekeepers, teachers determine basic and specific learning objectives based upon an examination and understanding of how their students learn and think, and select appropriate materials to help students achieve learning objectives in an enriched learning environment created and controlled by the teacher; as information resources managers, teachers prepare student learners by explaining the reasons and justifications for the use of the materials of learning; and as diagnosticians-counselors-tutors, teachers assist students in maximizing their learning potentials, help them to identify personal learning problems, and devise strategies to overcome them.

EVALUATION. Perhaps, no area of learning is as troublesome as testing and evaluation. In commerical language courses built upon the use of student-produced video, we have an opportunity to evaluate the improvement of learning in a manner not possible without video. In student-produced video, students (without the teacher present in the room) record classroom video projects. At the same time that students are recording a video project in a classroom or studio area, the teacher (in another room) is viewing the production process, and he or she records comments, suggestions, and constructivecriticism on the second, unused audio track[8] of the videotapes. Students play back the tape with the teacher's comments and suggestions, and develop ways to improve problem areas in pronunciation, syntax, grammar, and non-verbal communication. The project is re-shot by students, and re-evaluated by both students and teachers for evidence of improvement.

Given the opportunity to improve, many of us in education do what we have always done, only more of it. Most of us believe we can produce the perfect course--provided we are given enough time, resources, and financial rewards to do it. Student-produced video allows even old-timers in the education business to be innovative[9] and experiment with new 'tricks' and tools of the trade. As information gatekeepers and managers, diagnosticians and counselors, and tutors to our students, we can create rich learning environments in which our students learn by 'doing' the commercial target language culture via video--a technology that is accessible, user-friendly, and an excellent match for the video generation. Students can use video technology in simulation games, teaser scenarios, roleplays, mimes, commercials, and a host of other video activities.

When it comes to using video in languages for business and the professions, we must, as Neil Postman suggests, "...assume an experimental posture because there is no strong evidence that what we are doing now is the right thing." (Postman 134). By not overestimating how much we have done without ever using student-produced video, let us not underestimate how much we could learn to do with it.

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Notes

[1] The educational assessment reports appearing recently level criticism at every sector of education: 1) The area of teacher education is attacked in "A Call for Change in Teacher Education," the report of the National Commission on

Excellence in Education (a full text of which appears in the 6 Mar 1985 issue of The Chronicle of Higher Education); 2) The Bachelor's Degree is attacked, called 'meaningless,' and professors are asked to restore it in "Integrity in the College Curriculum: A Report to the Academic Community," from the Project on Redefining the Meaning and Purpose of the BA Degrees (a full text of which appears in the 13 Feb. 1985 issue of The Chronicle of Higher Education); The humanities are critically examined in "To Reclaim a Legacy," a report written by William J. Bennett and based on the findings of the Endowment for the Humanities Study Group on the State of Learning in the Humanities in Higher Education (a full text of which appears in the 28 Nov. 1984 issue of The Chronicle of Higher Education).

[2] "Involvement in Learning--Realizing the Potential of American Higher Education," is the National Institute of Education Report prepared by the Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education. This 100-page report is critically examined by L. Jackson Newell, dean of liberal arts education at the University of Utah in Salt Lake City, in the FORUM article, "A Catalyst and Touchstone," in Change, Nov/Dec. 1984, pp. 7-10.

[3] Video is available in a number of formats: two-inch quadraplex for professional studio decks using four video heads; one-inch width for semi-professional broadcast quality; three-quarter-inch width also called 'U-matic'; half-inch width, and quarter-inch width. Half-inch is the most popular format. The standard of the 1970's--open reel half-inch format--has given way to the color videocassette recorders (VCR) of today. Two VCR formats are popular today: Beta and Video Home System (VHS). These are not compatible with one another.

[4] The Video Primer. New York: Links Books, 1974; Television Production. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979; Practical Video. White Plains, NY: Knowledge

Industry Publications, Inc., 1978; Video in Education and Training. New York: Focal Press, 1980.

[5] Special editing features are not standard on every videotape machine. They include the following: the ability to record video and audio tracks separately and simultaneously, and the ability to 'signal lock' electronically to the video signal coming from the player unit so that when the command to record is initiated, the scene--from first to last frame--is smoothly added to the master tape without distortions.

[6] Sony, Hitachi, JVC, Panasonic, and other manufacturers of video products have cameras in the $1000-10,000 range for educational applications; microphones in the $75-100 range; ½" VCR's in the $1200-1600 range; black/white monitors in the $200-800 range, and color monitors in the $400-1000 range. Prices vary due to final bid pricing for educational institutions.

[7] Gagné, R.M. The Conditions of Learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1965, 1974, 1979; Anderson, J.P. Language, Memory, and Thought. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1976; Lindsay, P. and D. Norman. Human Information Processing. New York: Academic Press, 1977; Edling, Jack V., et. al. The Cognitive Domain. Washington, D.C.: 1972.

[8] This kind of evaluation technique is an adaptation of what is known as 'video self-confrontation' (VSC). Using a two-track (stereo) recorder enables the teacher to observe students taping a video project and simultaneously record comments, criticisms, and suggestions on the second audio track of the videotape. As students are taping their video projects, they are recording their soundtrack on Audiotrack 1, while the teacher in another room (via monitor or one-way glass) simultaneously records comments on Audiotrack 2. When students replay their videotapes, they can listen to the two audiotracks separately or

simultaneously, incorporating suggestions for improvements and recording again. Experience shows that students are much harder on themselves and each other during evaluation than teachers would ever dare to be.

[9] We can indeed be innovative all the way through graduate courses. Darnov, Moore, and Hickey in Video in the 1980's (p. 69) tell of an usually innovative approach with video at California's University of Advanced Studies (CUAS) where PhD candidates in education must produce a "video thesis" in order to earn the PhD in education. Depending upon the person's background, CUAS recommends courses in video--planning, scripting, production, post-production, etc.--, and once the candidate is experienced with video, he or she must produce an inexpensive but high quality video on a particular subject. And what is the university doing with all of these "video dissertations"? It is accumulating an impressive lending library of video subjects.

COMMERCIAL VIDEO PROGRAMS: A COMPONENT TO ENHANCE LANGUAGE SKILLS

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Commercial Video Programs: A Component to Enhance Language Skills

Introduction

Some of the recent national reports on education have indicated the existence of a "scandalous" state of foreign language study and international education in the United States. Since these reports came to light, numerous state task forces have been organized to examine the problems on a state basis and to make recommendations. As a result of these efforts, the trend is now one in which the reinstatement of foreign language requirements is a primary goal. On the negative side, there is evidence that the traditional methods of teaching foreign languages have not produced the expected and necessary results. At the present time, then, we find ourselves, on the one hand, promoting the study of foreign languages but, on the other hand, not having the appropriate approaches in the current methodologies to produce effective and acceptable language skills.

As far back as 1970 there was evidence that demonstrated that one of the major methodologies, the Audio-Lingual Approach, was no better than previous ones and that the new shiny laboratories that accompanied the technique had no measurable effect on language proficiency. As a result, there exists now an intense effort on the part of many to search for new and innovative teaching techniques that will restructure the traditional methods in which languages have been taught in this country.

Research is now underway to examine the efficiency of video materials produced by new technologies in the teaching of foreign languages. A sophisticated version of this approach is the integration of video lessons with microcomputer programs.

When the Board of Regents of the State of South Dakota passed a resolution to place a greater emphasis on the study of foreign languages, it was decided to look for a different and more innovative approach to be used in correlation with the methods that were currently in use in our language program. At first, we began to use micro-computers. However, it was quickly discovered that while this approach had some positive qualities, it was also not producing the results that were anticipated. It did not have that particular quality that would attract the students and keep them coming back for additional practice.

At that point, the decision was made to look in a different direction for an approach that would provide more visual information and more exposure to the target language. The result was the acquisition of a parabolic antenna and all the other necessary equipment.

Procedure and Implementation of the Project

The first order of business was to select and edit a series of programs that were appropriate for classroom use in terms of content, cultural contributions, level of difficulty, motivational capacity, and a diversity of material.

The programs selected usually fell into three categories: (1) cultural/information type, (2) entertainment, and (3) commercial advertisements. Of the three categories, the entertainment type of programming became the most popular. This material was more frequently used in the project. The next most popular category was the commercial advertisements.

Once the materials had been collected, the next step was to restructure the programs into teaching regiments or modules. The material was organized into small video segments and excercises to give the students the necessary practice in learning the material.

The presentation of the video lessons in the classroom followed the following pattern:

1. Preparation of a written version of the content of the program. In some cases, this part was optional depending on the difficulty of the material and the amount of time available to the instructor. Furthermore, the script could precede the viewing of the program or could be distributed to the students after they had the opportunity to see the video segment once or several times.

2. The distribution of a set of excercises to provide the student with a sense of orientation and a focus on the items to be learned.

3. The set of excercises was usually divided into parts of different formats: true-false statements, multiple choice questions, identification of tenses, identification of idiomatic expressions, general questions, written summaries of content, oral summaries of content, translations, etc. The goal was to divide the whole segment into small sections that would lead the student, one step at a time, to the learning of the entire segment.

4. Whenever troublesome expressions or sentence structures were

encountered, additional time was spent on them through written exercises or through the use of audio tapes for more listening practice.

5. Certain periods of time were allowed for the students to record their version on tape and then the original video version was played, without the sound track, in conjunction with the students' voices.

It should be noted that the procedure just indicated here is a general one and one that can be varied depending on the teaching style of the instructor.

Partial Results of the Project

One of the first benefits of the new approach made itself clear in the early stages of its implementation. It was in the area of the target culture. The students now had the opportunity to view certain cultural items that were not available to them in the textbook. For example, the students' misconceptions of Hispanic people were quickly shattered. Now they could see, that the characters they were viewing were not too different from themselves as they previously had expected. The characters they saw dressed in familiar fashion and they moved and behaved in a similar manner as do people of the United States. Furthermore, the students quickly realized that not all Hispanic persons are of the same skin color. They came to accept the fact that blond, blue-eyed persons do live in Hispanic countries and that they are able to speak Spanish with native abilities.

In addition, the characters with which the students became familiar were no longer entities of abstraction to which they could not relate.

They were now persons who were alive, full of emotions and endowed with a personality. The number of persons that were viewed was not limited to three or four as found in the dialogues of the textbook. Now the student could become familiar with a variety of characters that represented different segments of society.

With the variety of characters also came a diversity of voices. Typically, language students are exposed to a low number of voices in the classroom. Even with additional laboratory work, the total number which the students will hear is still very limited. With the addition of video programming the number of voices is considerably expanded.

One major difference in this area, for example, is found in the unique sounds produced in children's speech. Generally, the characters in textbooks are not children and even in the very few cases in which they are found, the student cannot distinguish their manner of speech from that of adult characters.

Another difference in the audio aspect became apparent in the female voices. Although students may be aware and may be familiar with the uniqueness of the female voice in the target language, in video programming the diversity is greater. This new exposure to a variety of voices became a crucial factor of great benefit in the enhancement of the student's listening abilitites.

The new variety of characters also provided a new set of gestures and movements that were totally non-existent in the textbook. One weakness in the traditional manner of teaching foreign languages in the classroom is the lack of presentation of non-verbal communication.

Traditionally, the non-verbal elements of communication have been greatly underused and underestimated in the typical foreign language classroom.

One major advantage that video programming has over the textbook dialogues is the body language that becomes quite evident in the actions of the characters. Obviously, body language has some universal similarities to which students can relate. However, there are also many differences with which the student is not familiar. The most important factor in this area was not necessarily the similarities nor the differences but the fact that the students were exposed to the target language in motion. There were some cases in which the student was unable to fully comprehend every word of a sentence, or even sentences, but he was able to capture the full context of the situation with the aid of gestures and movements.

Conclusion

In conclusion, while the use of commercial television programs may not be the panecea to the problems in foreign language teaching, it does provide certain advantages and benefits that have been lacking in the typical language classroom in which the textbook is the primary source of learning. This new technology mentioned has the tremendous advantage of putting language into motion. With this technique, the student no longer has to accept nor tolerate static figures without personalities and emotions.

Furthermore, video programming can bring the target culture to the student. This is of crucial importance when one considers the fact that a majority of language students do not travel abroad. In addition, the linguistic patterns in the video programs are more varied and complex than those found in textbooks. These patterns are more realistic and, in many cases, also more current than those introduced by a text.

Finally, one cannot underestimate the motivational factor involved in this approach. The content of video programming has the potential of attracting and maintaining student attention for a longer periods of time. The students become more interested in the material to be studied and, consequently, spend more time practicing the language. With a creative instructor, it can become a powerful component that can definitely enhance students' foreign language skills.

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MICROCOMPUTERS, SOFTWARE AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES: AN ANALYSIS OF TXTPRO

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In 1984-1985 Seferino J. Hurtado, Director of the Foreign Language Laboratory of the Modern Language Department at Metropolitan State College, made an extensive literature search and review of C.A.I. software for teaching French, Spanish and German. The basic results of this study, soon to be published, are as follows:

1. 97% of the materials are designed to teach using drill and practice format; 2% are tutorial; 1% simulation.

2. Of the packages reviewed, none could be used in isolation to effectively teach foreign languges for general purposes much less for special purposes.

3. The objectives of the most of the programs reviewed were vague.

5. Review of software was difficult, because software companies refused to allow for review without purchase.

6. Concrete evidence that any of the programs reviewed increased foreign language learning is lacking.

These conclusions parallel those reached by other researchers and reviewers of C.A.I software. For example, the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute (EPIE), a New York based educational group affiliated with Consumer´s Union, publisher of Consumer Reports found that:

1. 68 percent of all CAI software still relies on standard drill and practice. Departure from this format is mainly in the area of teaching logic and problem solving.

2. Programs using simulation learning comprises only 8.3 percent of todays software.

3. Math software is still the most common type available, making up 25.8 percent of all educaional programs, followed by science at 13.5 percent, English/language arts at 12 percent, reading at 9.9 percent and social studies and foreign language all near five percent.

4. More than half of the software reviewed is targeted for home computer users. This statistic is related to the act that

the number of homecomputers owned by families with children outnumbers school computers by an 8 to 1 ratio.

5. Of the 7000 programs reviewed form 500 companies, the group recommended only 5 percent highly and 32 percent with reservations and suggested that 60 percent of the programs are not worth the money.(1, pg. 4)

Independently and concurrently, the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languaes Affairs (OBEMLA) has released a similar report related to the teaching of English as Second language. The conclusions reached in that report are similar to those reached by Hurato at Metropolitan State College and the EPIE project.

According to this report,(2, pp. 1-2):

1. A lack of planning and staff training have compromised the effectivness of many CAI programs.

2. The objectives of CAI programs are often not specific.

3. Good software is lacking

4. Projects that use CAI material tend to depend on one key person without whom the project would most likely fail.

The problem is not only because of the low quality and quantity of software for teaching foreign languages for special purposes. Two other problems frequently mentioned are:

1. Educators are unconvinced of the efficacy of CAI technologies.

2. Even if they think CAI has potential, funds for other purposes have more importance for them. (Also see: 3, pg. 24).

The first of the above problems has been interpreted as a matter of teacher preceptions of CAI. According to Cathy A. Sandeen´s study, many teachers perceive CAI as a threat to their professions, and to their teaching methods (4, pp. 46-47). To augment this observation, the author quotes another researcher who concluded that "computers will not be used productively in education unless teachers have positive attitudes toward them and believe computers to be [effective] instructional tools."(5, pg. 230).

The conclusion of the first part of this paper, therefore, is, that given the lack of progress in CAI programs and given the other barriers discussed above, the use of microcomputers for teaching foreign languages effectively is still in the theoretical stage. In reading research on the fear that computers might replace teachers, I´m reminded of the following story concerning the threat of machines replacing thinkers:

"Jeremy Bernstein, the physicist and writer, recalls that when he was a graduate student he once approached the [great] Von Neumann to ask him if he believed that computers would ever make mathematicians unnecesary. Von Neumann´s reply was "Sonny, don´t worry about it."(6, pg. 154).

II

The use of bad software results in negative perception of the use of microcomputers for teaching purposes. One possible software program which might change this perception is a package recently developed by Executive Resource Associates, under a contract from the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority languages Affairs (OBEMLA). Before discussing this program, TXTPRO, in more detail, several salient points need to be emphasized.

1. TXTPRO is not a CAI program for students.

2. Initially, TXTPRO was designed as a research tool for graduate students at Georgetown University´s School of Languages and Linguistics

3. Because TXTPRO has no idea what language it is suppose to analyze, it can be used to analyze any language which uses the Roman alphabet.

Given this introduction to TXTPRO, what follows is:

A. A brief history of its development

B. A brief description of what it does

C. A brief discussion of how it can be used.

HISTORY

The idea for TXTPRO was a spinoff from another OBLEMA project.

That project was to develop a method to test the oral proficiency of limited English speakers to screen them for enrollment in OBEMLA´s Bilingual Vocational Training Programs. In developing that test, the researchers wondered whether there was an easier way to sort out words which were frequently used in specific vocations. One of the linguists of the research team replied that he believed that several universities already had such progrmas to analyze texts in a way that might be useful for developing the test. Although the test was completed without the aid of such software, the team began to look for these programs to determine if they might have some application in helping bilingual vocational teachers sort out vocabulary and language structures to help them prepare more vocationally specific lessons plans.

After further inquiries, the researchers traced down several programs which could make the following kinds of text analyses:

1. Count how many times words are used in a text.
2. Print out the context in which these words are used.
3. Give statistical analyses of word frequencies
4. Analyze readability and stylistics
5. Help develop tests
6. Keep records.

All of the programs could only run on mainframe computers. None of the programs reviewed could perform all of the above functions. The program that could do most of the above kinds of analyses was identified as follows:

PRIMARY ACCESSION CODE: DA4004

TITLE OR NAME:
TXTPRO: A Test-Processsing Package

PROGRAM CREATOR: Shaefer, Leonard

PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES USED:
PL/1 Statistical Analysis System (SAS)

PLACE OF DEVELOPMENT:

(5)

Language Processing Center
School of Languages and Linguistics
Georgetown University
Washington, D.C. 20057

PREVIOUS RELEASE DATE: December, 1981. (7, pg. 121).

WHAT TXTPRO DOES

When the researchers found out about Leonard Shaefer´s program, they recruited him under a second contract from OBEMLA to use his program to analyze vocational texts to help vocational ESL teachers prepare for job specific lesson plans. This team, which now included Ross Macdonald, Paul Stupp, Mary Galvan and Rudolph Troike, worked with the Georgetown computer to regroup and list the words of vocational texts in ways that the team thought might be helpful to teachers. The lists produced from the simplest to more complex are as follows:

A. Simple Lists, including:

1. Alphabetic Word Lists (figure 1)
2. Reversed Alphabetic lists

Simple lists are simply inventories of words that occur in the text. Their chief value is that they provide checklists to help the teacher keep track of information pertaining to different words. Reverse alphabetic lists are interesting in that they not only keep track of words, they can be helpful in certain drill patterns (Figure 2).

B. Frequency Lists, including:

1. Frequency Order Lists (figure 3)
2. Alphabetic Frequency Lists (figure 4)
3. Reverse Alphabetic Frequency List (figure 5)

These inventories list how often a word appears. A frequency order list inventories words in order of frequency, while the alphabetic frequency list gives words in alphabetic order and numbers how often they are used in the text. The original TXTPRO program apparently did not sort out frequently used words in general language usesage. Consequently a frequency order list analyzing a dental technician text appeared as follows:

ITEM	FREQUENCY
WITH	696 (i.e. this word appeared 696 times in the text sample).
AS	574
ON	544
BY	511
TOOTH	481 (As might be expected from nature of the text)
MAY	449
THAT	449
IT	403

Reverse alphabetic frequency lists are inventories of the number of times words with common ending appear. For example the list of ing words would be helpful in drilling the progressive, using vocabulary that have immediate relevance to the purpose for which English is being taught.

3. Word Combinations

While lists of single words can be useful, it is sometimes desirable to study combinations of words. Such combinations of words may be called collocations; for the purposes of this paper, they will be referred to as combinations. The original TXTPRO provides lists of word combinations of any length. Usually 2- and 3- word combinations prove to be the most useful.(figure 6)

TXTPRO is also programmed to sort out these combinations in frequency order, alphabetic order and alphabetic/frequency order (figure 7).

4. Concordances

A more complex type of listing, and one which can be extremly useful, is the concordance. This kind of listing is sometiems also called a KWIC, which stands for "Key Word in Context."

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A concordance will list    key words   in this manner.  Another
way to list the same       key words   would be alphabetically.
Examples of lists of such  key words   can be found figure 8.
```

A third way PROTXT can construct a condordance is to isolate KWIC´s , that is, key words in context, in reverse alphabetic order (figure 9). Given these ways to order concordances, it can be seen that these kinds of inventories have all of the advantages of the lists mentioned as well as other advantages of considerable scope.

With an alphabetic concordance it is posssible to study any form of a word in the various ways in which it occurs in that text. You can see whether a verb is used in its transitive or intransitive form, or both. You will be able to see which forms of the verb are used more frequently. Further, where a form has more than one use or meaning, you can find the relative frequency of its various uses.

Also, you can tell exactly the context in which frequent words are used in order to teach the word´s relevant meanings. To take a trivial example, in the concordance which lists words from a sample from a word processing text, "dictator," or "dictator´s", is used 11 times. If we look at the context we can confirm our suspicion that this word refers to the person who is dictating into a dictating machine, and not to Adolph Hitler or Ronald Reagan. With a reverse alphabetic concordance, grammatical categories can be studied.

For example, most verbs in English have a form which ends with -ed. This can be the simple past tense or it can be the past participle. When it is the past paraticiple, it may occur with "have" as is in "have finished," in the passive voice with a form of "to be", as "he was finished," or as an adjective with a noun, such as "the finished product." In Macdonald *et al*´s analyses of technical texts, the most frequent is the passive use followed by the adjectival usage (7, pg. 24). Using the reverse alphabetic concordance, you can also see at a glance, the various ways in which the ending -ing is used, and thereby gain a clearsense of what is important in the particular technical field in which you are teaching a foreign langugage. In English, the -ed and -ing lists are particularly suited for developing drill exercises with words and sentences relevant to a particular field.

The lists the mainframe TXTPRO we have been discussing could also do the following:

1. Tell you when a word occurs in certain sections of a text (i.e chapters), and how frequently that word occurs in that section. Again, taking an example form data entry, it should be no surprise to find that "input" would appear in a section of the text before "output", and that a section on how to enter data into the computer will have a high frequency of the word "input". This kind of list, which MacDonald *et. al.* call "Word Segment Distribution List," can be used with the concordance to help the teacher decide which vocabulary to teach first and in which contexts (7, pg. 26).

2. Give you a list of words in a way that will tell you how the words are used grammatically, how often they are used according to a specific grammatical code, and in what context that grammatically coded word is used (figure 10).

HOW TXTPRO CAN BE USED

TXTPRO, in the form discussed, could be, with modifications, entered into a mainframe, a minicomputer and a microcompter. Therefore, if you were an ESL or VESL teacher, or a Spanish for special purpose teacher, you could simply order the source code, enter it into your computer and then start anaylzing texts to develop more relevant and practical lesson plans for whatever foreign language you are teaching for special purposes.

Of course, in the area of computers, rarely anything is as simple as it first sounds. TXTPRO has over 2500 lines of code. That code is written in PL/1 and therefore can only be run on mainframes that can handle that languge. If you have another kind of machine, you would have to use (SAS) a statistical analysis system to make the code work. There are other problems, but these alone make it clear, why TXTPRO was an impractical program for your average ESL or foreign language.

Consequently, inorder to make TXTPRO more accessible to teachers in bilingual vocational training, Galvan and associates were awarded another contract through Educational Resource Associates to simplify TXTPRO and make it run on microcomputers without having to go through any of the above maneuvers. The result is, what I will call TXTPRO PC.

TXTPRO PC was simplified so that it could only give simple frequency lists in alphabetical and reverse alphabetical order and concordance inventories in alphabetical and reverse alphabetical order. It is designed to work on the Apple 2e, the IBM PC and IBM-compatible microcomputers with 256K of memory. It is easy to use.

That at least, is the theory. In fact, if we were able to ask the great Von Neumann if he thought that PROTXT PC would help change the perception of foreign language teachers on the usefulness of computers in making life easier for them, he would probably answer, "Sonny, I doubt it."

The reason, however, is not in what TXTPRO PC can do, but it what it takes to get it to do what its supposed to do: A few problems that the novice microcomputer user will run into are as follows:

A. It has been found in a number of experiments, that 25% of the text the teacher choses to analyze for teaching purposes should be entered into the computer in order for the data to be representative. Moreover, samples should be made up of short sections spead as evenly as possible through the text. Thus if the text is 100,000 words long, and you wish to have 25,000 words processed, the optimum approach is to sample every fourth block of 100 words, throughout the text. If you assume 250 words per page, that would mean that you would have to type in 100 pages for each book you want analyzed.

B. Secondly, the number of pages you get after you have processed the text will be approximately 80% of the number of pages you´ve entered. Thus for every 100 pages you have entered for analysis you will get 80 pages of data.

C. TXTPRO is very slow on the microcomputer unless your machine has a hard disk drive. Therefore, if you have a single or dual disk system, be prepared to sit with the machine for several hours as it cranks out your concordances and other lists

D. Assuming that each page you entered for processing has 1980 characters (66 characters per line x 30 lines), each text analyzed will occupy approximately 5 foppy disks. If you can type 50 words per minute, observing TXTPRO´s protocols, it will take you over eight hours of non-stop typing to enter the data needed to analyze each text. Assuming Murphy´s law, given computer system protocols, TXTPRO protocols, and linguistic protocols, I would assume a minimum of three days sitting at the microcomputer for each text analyzed.

E. The above assumptions are based on the following assumptions:

1. That the user already knows how TXTPRO runs.

2. That the user already knows how to use a wordprocessing packet that is compatible with TXTPRO.

3. That the user is well acquainted with the theory and pratice of teaching foreign languages for special purposes and has already selected texts appropriate for this kind teaching for analysis by TXTPRO.

This string of "ifs" makes it highly unlikely that the groves of academe will soon be flooded with foreign language teachers using TXTPRO to help them write lesson plans. Moreover even if these obstacles are overcome, TXTPRO, in its present form, still may not be that helpful for the teacher, because it is still in the theoretical stage as to its practical effectiveness. Nevertheless, it is the conclusion of this writer, that as a research tool, it has great potential, and it is from that perspective, I would like to end this discussion.

CONCLUSION

TXTPRO Began as a research tool, and it is my conclusion that that is where it´s strength still lies. At present, at Metropolitan State College´s Bilingual Vocational English Training Program, we are designing a plan to use TXTPRO to analyze the language of the files contained in a wordprocessing package called Select Bilingual(8). One possible application of such an analysis would be to sort out words and word patterns and compare the lists in both languages to help develop a bilingual textbook to teach English and/or Spanish for the automated office enviornment. We already have considerable information data on function words, subtechnical words, and technical words of the kind of English used in the clerical and office automation enviornment.(See appendix for lists of these words). In addition to the kinds of lists already described in this paper, it would be of interest to make a similar comparison of these same kinds of words in the Select Bilingual Files.

Another area of research where TXTPRO cay be used to provide relevant information for the teaching of foreign languages for special purposes is in the study of oral language. Because Metropolitan State College currently does not have easy access to an enviornment where foreign languages for business is spoken in its natural matrix, we would be unable to conduct such research outside of English for special purposes. However, for other colleges and universities which have access to such enviornments, TXTPRO could prove an effective research tool.

For example, if a team of researchers had access to an internship Spanish for business program with an international company in Spain, that would be one ideal laboratory where researchers could gather data on informal speech for TXTPRO analysis. Another ideal setting for the recording of more formal discourse for analysis would be in the lecture halls of a Spanish business school. The Spanish spoken here would fall between the extreme formal Spanish of the textbook and the more informal Spanish of the business office.

A third area of research where TXTPRO would be helpful is in the area of designing a textbook for teaching how to do technical and scientific translations. Any such research however, takes time, money, brains and good research tools. TXTPRO is an example of such a tool which has tremendous potential. I think brains are in ample supply as can be evidenced by those attending this conference. All we need now is the time and the money.

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TEXT FIGURES

Figure # 1 Alphabetic Word List

```
EFFORT
EGG
EGGS
EIGHT
EIGHTEEN
EIGHTH
EITHER
EJECTING
EJECTOR
ELABORATION
ELAPSED
ELASTIC
ELASTICITY
ELASTICS
ELASTOMERIC
ELBOW
ELBOWS
ELECT
ELECTRIC
ELECTRICAL
ELECTRICITY
ELECTROLYTE
ELECTROLYTIC
ELECTROMAGNETIC
ELECTRON
ELECTRONIC
ELECTRONS
ELECTROPLATING
ELECTS
ELEMENT
ELEMENTS
EMBEDDED
EMBRASURE
EMBRASURES
EMBRYO
EMBRYOLOGY
EMBRYONIC
EMBRYOS
EMERGE
EMERGENCE
EMERGENCIES
EMERGENCY
EMERGING
EMERY
EMINENCE
EMISSION
EMITTED
EMOTIONAL
EMPHASIS
EMPHASIZE
EMPIRIN
EMPLOY
EMPLOYED
EMPLOYEE
EMPLOYER
EMPLOYMENT
EMPTIED
EMPTY
EMULSIFICATION
EMULSIFIED
EMULSION
ENABLE
ENDOCARDITIS
ENDOCRINE
ENDODONTIC
ENDODONTICALLY
ENDODONTICS
ENDOTOXINS
ENDOTRACHEAL
ENDS
ENERGETIC
ENERGY
ENERGY-RELEASING
ENERGY-YIELDING
ENFLURANE
ENFORCED
ENGAGE
ENGAGES
ENGAGING
ENGINEERING
ENHANCE
ENJOY
ENLARGE
ENLARGED
ENLARGEMENT
ENLARGEMENTS
ENOUGH
ENRICHED
ENSUES
ENSURE
ENSURING
ENTANGLED
ENTERED
```

Source: MacDonald et. al.

The sample given in figure 2 includes some of the words that end in -ed. Most of them are the past tense (or past participle) of verbs. These suggest ways in which verbs may be taught, including differences in pronunciation (incited, proved, fixed) and differences in spelling (curved, tested, pitted, etc.). With such a list, you can group the verbs into lesson units depending on the nature of the lesson you wish to teach.

Figure #2 Reverse Alphabetic Word List

INCITED
ACCREDITED
BENEFITED
LIMITED
UNITED
INHERITED
DEPOSITED
HALTED
MELTED
CONSULTED
GRANTED
WARRANTED
UNWANTED
INDENTED
CEMENTED
COMPLEMENTED
SUPPLEMENTED
PRESENTED
REPRESENTED
MISREPRESENTED
PREVENTED
PAINTED
POINTED
APPOINTED
PRINTED
TINTED
COUNTED
MOUNTED
UNMOUNTED
NOTED
SINGLE-ROOTED
MULTI-ROOTED

MANIFESTED
SUGGESTED
DIGESTED
INGESTED
CONGESTED
INTERESTED
ARRESTED
TESTED
REQUESTED
INVESTED
LISTED
ASSISTED
TWISTED
EXISTED
POSTED
ADJUSTED
CRUSTED
FITTED
SUBMITTED
ADMITTED
EMITTED
COMMITTED
PERMITTED
TRANSMITTED
PITTED
ALLOTTED
DISTRIBUTED
REDISTRIBUTED
ATTRIBUTED
DILUTED
SUBSTITUTED
CONTINUED

PROVED
IMPROVED
APPROVED
CARVED
OBSERVED
RESERVED
PRESERVED
CURVED
VIEWED
REVIEWED
ALLOWED
SWALLOWED
FOLLOWED
HOLLOWED
BURROWED
RELAXED
WAXED
UNWAXED
FIXED
AFFIXED
MIXED
DECAYED
DELAYED
SPRAYED
CONVEYED
SURVEYED
ALLOYED
EMPLOYED
DESTROYED
CRITICIZED
OXIDIZED
STANDARDIZED

MacDonald, et. al.

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              TXTPRO Text Processing System

Word-Frequency Summary for Text in File b:wp6.ibm

                    Alphabetic Order

Text Item                                  Frequency

a                                              4
ability                                        2
according                                      1
accordingly                                    1
accurately                                     1
addressee                                      1
addresses                                      2
adjust                                         2
advantages                                     1
again                                          3
an                                             37
and                                            2
any                                            1
appropriate                                    1
approximate                                    6
are                                            2
area                                           1
arrange                                        1
arts                                           3
as                                             5
at                                             1
attention                                      1
automatically                                  1
available                                      3
back                                           11
be                                             1
been                                           2
```

figure # 3

Figure # 4

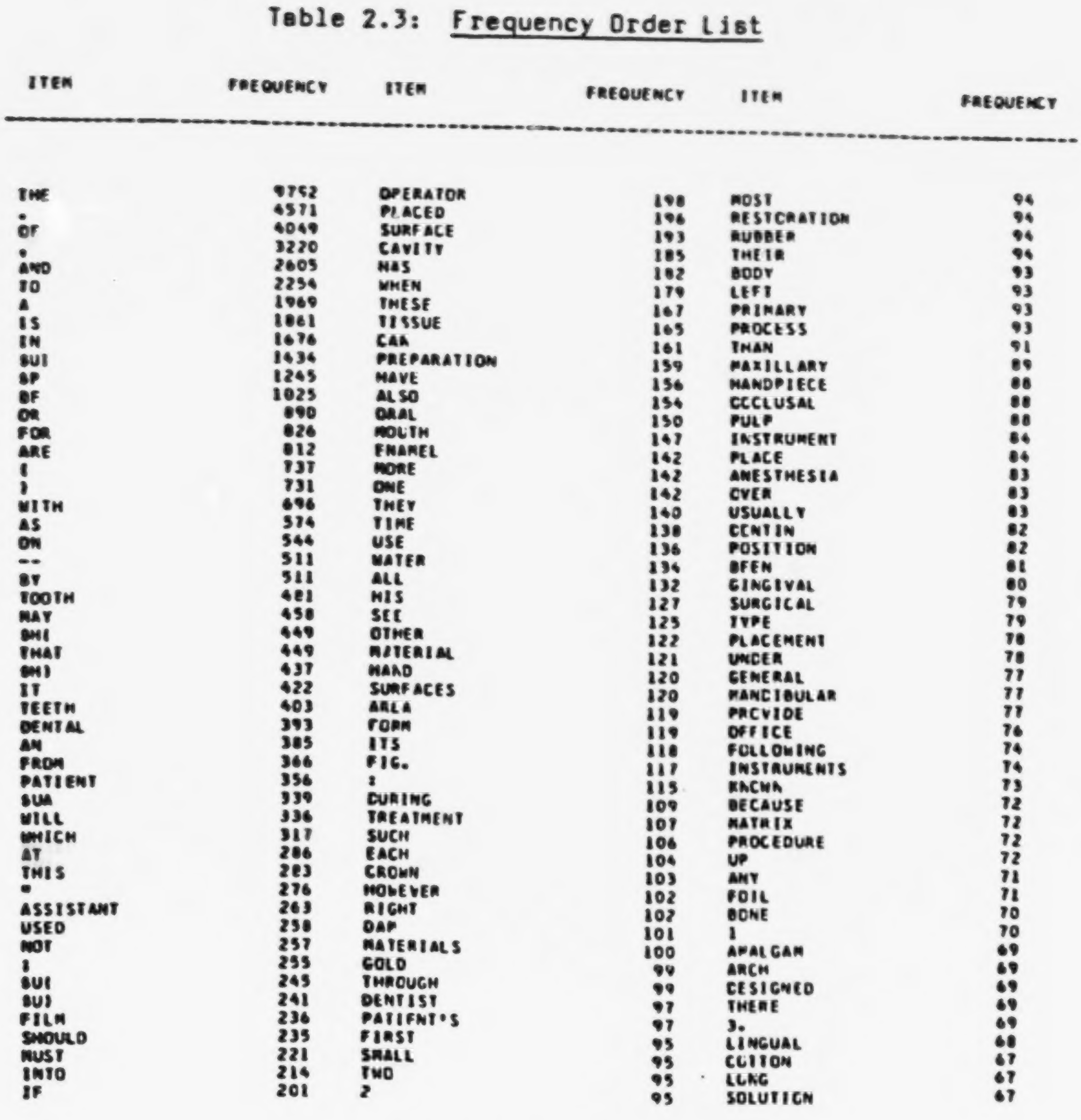

Table 2.3: Frequency Order List

ITEM	FREQUENCY	ITEM	FREQUENCY	ITEM	FREQUENCY
THE	9752	OPERATOR	198	MOST	94
.	4571	PLACED	196	RESTCRATION	94
OF	4049	SURFACE	193	RUBBER	94
,	3220	CAVITY	185	THEIR	94
AND	2605	HAS	182	BODY	93
TO	2254	WHEN	179	LEFT	93
A	1969	THESE	167	PRIMARY	93
IS	1861	TISSUE	165	PROCESS	93
IN	1676	CAN	161	THAN	91
BUI	1434	PREPARATION	159	MAXILLARY	89
BP	1245	HAVE	156	HANDPIECE	88
BF	1025	ALSO	154	CCCLUSAL	88
OR	890	ORAL	150	PULP	88
FOR	826	MOUTH	147	INSTRUMENT	84
ARE	812	FNAMEL	142	PLACE	84
(	737	MORE	142	ANESTHESIA	83
)	731	ONE	142	CVER	83
WITH	696	THEY	140	USUALLY	83
AS	574	TIME	138	CCNTIN	82
ON	544	USE	136	POSITION	82
--	511	WATER	134	BFEN	81
BY	511	ALL	132	GINGIVAL	80
TOOTH	481	HIS	127	SURGICAL	79
MAY	458	SEE	125	TYPE	79
BH(	449	OTHER	122	PLACEMENT	78
THAT	449	M/TERIAL	121	UNCER	78
BH)	437	HAND	120	GENERAL	77
IT	422	SURFACES	120	MANCIBULAR	77
TEETH	403	ARLA	119	PRCVIDE	77
DENTAL	393	FORM	119	OFFICE	76
AN	385	ITS	118	FOLLOWING	74
FROM	366	FIG.	117	INSTRUMENTS	74
PATIENT	356	:	115	KNCWN	73
BUA	339	DURING	109	BECAUSE	72
WILL	336	TREATMENT	107	MATRIX	72
WHICH	317	SUCH	106	PROCEDURE	72
AT	286	EACH	104	UP	72
THIS	283	CROWN	103	ANY	71
"	276	HOWEVER	102	FOIL	71
ASSISTANT	263	RIGHT	102	BONE	70
USED	258	DAP	101	1	70
NOT	257	MATERIALS	100	AMALGAM	69
;	255	GOLD	99	ARCH	69
BU(	245	THROUGH	99	CESIGNED	69
BU)	241	DENTIST	97	THERE	69
FILM	236	PATIFNT'S	97	3.	69
SHOULD	235	FIRST	95	LINGUAL	68
MUST	221	SMALL	95	CCTTON	67
INTO	214	TWO	95	LCNG	67
IF	201	2	95	SOLUTICN	67

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                    TXTPRO Text Processing System

          Word-Frequency Summary for Text in Gile b:wp6.ibm

                      Reverse Alphabetic Order

         Text Item                                Frequency

                 a                                   22
              area                                   2
             media                                   7
        electronic                                   1
          magnetic                                   7
              disc                                   1
               etc                                   4
        letterhead                                   1
         proofread                                   2
          workload                                   1
       transcribed                                   2
            placed                                   3
          produced                                   1
            needed                                   1
          recorded                                   4
              need                                   4
             speed                                   3
           plugged                                   2
         clarified                                   1
          verified                                   1
           checked                                   1
             filed                                   1
     self-contained                                  1
             typed                                   1
          prepared                                   1
           entered                                   1
          required                                   1
          enclosed                                   1
         processed                                   1
              used                                   10
           located                                   2
          repeated                                   1
          dictated                                   3
         connected                                   2
           omitted                                   1
           removed                                   3
       categorized                                   1
              said                                   1
         hand-held                                   1
               and                                   37
```

figure # 5

Figure 6 A 2-word Combinations in Frequency Order

OBS	WORD1	WORD2	FRQ
1	MAY	BE	249
2	IT	IS	166
3	SHOULD	BE	166
4	TO	BE	161
5	MUST	BE	133
6	SURFACE	OF	95
7	CAN	BE	91
8	WILL	BE	85
9	IS	PLACED	81
10	SUCH	AS	81
11	BE	USED	78
12	CAVITY	PREPARATION	75
13	KNOWN	AS	65
14	PATIENT	IS	64
15	USED	TO	63
16	AND	IS	61
17	AND	TO	61
18	RUBBER	DAM	60
19	PLACED	IN	57
20	THEY	ARE	55
21	TO	PROVIDE	52
22	USE	OF	52
23	SURFACES	OF	51
24	PER	CENT	50
25	PLACEMENT	OF	50
26	CHAIRSIDE	ASSISTANT	49
27	USED	FOR	49
28	USED	IN	49
29	IS	USED	48
30	IS	NOT	47
31	GOLD	FOIL	46

Figure 6A gives a sample of 2-word combinations in alphabetic order by the first word. You can see immediately the importance of technical terms in which gingival is the first word, but other word combinations also stand out (2755, 2767, 2769).

Table 2.7: 2-word Combinations in Alphabetic Order

OBS	WORD1	WORD2	FRQ
2755	GAUZE	SQUARE	2
2756	GEAR-DRIVEN	HANDPIECE	2
2757	GEL	IN	2
2758	GEL	STRENGTH	2
2759	GENERAL	ANATOMICAL	2
2760	GENERAL	ANESTHESIA	28
2761	GENERAL	ANESTHETICS	4
2762	GENERAL	DENTIST	4
2763	GENERAL	FEELING	2
2764	GENERAL	PRACTITIONER	4
2765	GENERALLY	MEASURED	2
2766	GENERALLY	PREFERRED	2
2767	GENERIC	NAME	2
2768	GENERIC	NAMES	2
2769	GESTATION	PERIOD	2
2770	GINGIVA	AND	4
2771	GINGIVA	IS	3
2772	GINGIVA	TO	2
2773	GINGIVAE	AND	2
2774	GINGIVAL	AND	4
2775	GINGIVAL	AREA	4
2776	GINGIVAL	EMBRASURE	2
2777	GINGIVAL	ENLARGEMENT	2

Figure 6B is a sample from the list of 3-word combinations in frequency order. If you look at Nos. 57, 71, 97, 98, you get insight into technical terminology. You get hints for teaching grammar from Nos. 51, 52, 54, 67, 75, 76, 89, 90, 91, 92. This last group underlines the importance of the passive voice in technical language.

3-word Combinations in Frequency Order

```
OBS   WORD1        WORD2         WORD3         FRQ

 51   IS           CAUSED        BY             8
 52   IS           DESIGNED      TO             8
 53   IS           ONE           OF             8
 54   IS           USED          FOR            8
 55   LEFT         HAND          AND            8
 56   LINGUAL      SURFACE       OF             8
 57   MAXILLARY    AND           MANDIBULAR     8
 58   THEY         ARE           NOT            8
 59   TO           AID           IN             8
 60   TO           BE            RADIOGRAPHED   8
 61   WILL         NEED          TO             8
 62   ANGLE        FORMED        BY             7
 63   AT           ALL           TIMES          7
 64   AT           RIGHT         ANGLES         7
 65   IN           WHICH         THERE          7
 66   INSTRUMENT   DESIGNED      TO             7
 67   IS           DERIVED       FROM           7
 68   IT           CAN           BE             7
 69   IT           IS            NOT            7
 70   MAY          BE            UTILIZED       7
 71   MESIAL       AND           DISTAL         7
 72   OCCLUSAL     SURFACES      OF             7
 73   OUTER        SURFACE       OF             7
 74   PER          CENT          OF             7
 75   SHOULD       BE            KEPT           7
 76   SHOULD       BE            PLACED         7
 77   THERE        IS            NO             7
 78   TO           BE            PLACED         7
 79   TOOTH        TO            BE             7
 80   USED         IN            DENTISTRY      7
 81   WHICH        THERE         IS             7
 82   ZINC         PHOSPHATE     CEMENT         7
 83   ALSO         BE            USED           6
 84   AND          CAN           BE             6
 85   AND          MUST          BE             6
 86   AND          PLACES        IT             6
 87   APPEARS      TO            BE             6
 88   ARE          AS            FOLLOWS        6
 89   ARE          DESIGNED      TO             6
 90   ARE          KNOWN         AS             6
 91   BE           STORED        IN             6
 92   BE           USED          WITH           6
 93   CHAIRSIDE    ASSISTANT     MAY            6
 94   CHAIRSIDE    ASSISTANT     MUST           6
 95   FINGER       AND           THUMB          6
 96   FOR          USE           IN             6
 97   GINGIVAL     MARGIN        TRIMMER        6
 98   GOLD         FOIL          RESTORATION    6
 99   HORIZONTAL   ANGULATION    IS             6
100   IN           COMBINATION   WITH           6
```

Figure 6 B

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Table 2.12: Word Segment Distribution

Figure # 7

OBS	WORD	COUNT	SEG1	SEG2	SEG3	SEG4	SEG5	SEG6	SEG7	SEG8	SEG9	SEG10	SEG11	SEG12	SEG13	SEG14
193	ADDITIVES	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
194	ADDITONAL	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
195	ADDRESS	6	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
196	ADDRESSED	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
197	ADENOCARCINOMA	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
198	ADEQUACY	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
199	ADEQUATE	28	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	5
200	ADEQUATELY	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
201	ADHERE	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
202	ADHERING	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
203	ADHESION	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
204	ADHESIVE	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
205	ADJACENT	42	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	8	0	2	1
206	ADJOINING	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	0
207	ADJUNCT	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
208	ADJUNCTIVE	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
209	ADJUNCTS	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
210	ADJUST	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
211	ADJUSTABLE	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
212	ADJUSTED	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
213	ADJUSTING	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
214	ADJUSTMENT	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
215	ADJUSTMENTS	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
216	ADJUSTS	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
217	ADMINISTERED	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
218	ADMINISTERING	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
219	ADMINISTERS	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
220	ADMINISTRATION	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0
221	ADMINISTRATIVE	16	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
222	ADMINSTRATIVE	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
223	ADMISSION	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
224	ADMITTANCE	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
225	ADMITTED	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
226	ADMITTING	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
227	ADOPTED	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
228	ADOPTION	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
229	ADRENAL	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
230	ADRENALIN	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
231	ADULT	9	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
232	ADULTHOOD	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
233	ADULTS	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
234	ADVANCE	8	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
235	ADVANCED	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
236	ADVANCING	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
237	ADVANTAGE	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
238	ADVANTAGEOUS	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
239	ADVANTAGES	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5

SAMPLE CONCORDANCE: word processing

```
tem dictated . remember the following when   dictating               : speak clearly . do not slur or run wor
 private wire or by telephone lines to the   dictating               devices -- a microphone or a telephone -
 by private wire or telephone lines to the   dictating               devices -- a microphone or a telephone -
ulty in transcriptionist understanding the   dictation               . dictation techniques : organize for di
o control the loudness and softness of the   dictation               . foot pedal -- used to start and stop d
start and stop dictation and to replay the   dictation               . headset -- used to listen to dictation
ption unit . turn the unit on . preview the  dictation               . listen to the first item to be transcr
ed to increase or decrease the speed of the  dictation               . tone control device -- used to adjust 
- to produce a typed document from recorded  dictation               . transcription unit -- a device used to
e dictation . headset -- used to listen to   dictation               . types of discrete media : magnetic car
matically replay the last few words of the   dictation               . volume control device -- used to contr
tion . dictation techniques : organize for   dictation               : make notes . prepare an outline of poi
s . determine the approximate length of the  dictation               and set the typewriter margins accordin
tion . foot pedal -- used to start and stop  dictation               and to replay the dictation . headset --
d and correct any errors that occur during   dictation               and transcription . logical thinking sk
 ; magnetic discs . endless loop system --   dictation               equipment which uses an endless loop of
nit -- a device used to play back recorded   dictation               for transcribing . transcriptionist -- 
scriptionist understanding the dictation .   dictation               techniques : organize for dictation : m
 styles of desk-top units are available : a  dictation               unit , a transcription unit , a combina
ne transcription . terms and definitions :   dictation               unit -- a device into which information
pes of discrete media equipment . portable   dictation               unit -- a self-contained , hand-held un
 ) . discrete media can be removed from the  dictation               unit and placed in a transcription unit
iption unit , a combination unit with both   dictation/transcript capabilities . centralized-recording sy
or's desk . advantages and disadvantages of  dictation/transcript equipment : advantages : saves time and
ces recorded words into typewritten form .   dictation/transcript equipment : dictation/transcription equ
form . dictation/transcription equipment :   dictation/transcript equipment is categorized by the type of
n information can be entered and recorded .  dictator                -- the person who originates paperwork
 follow the confusing items . consulting the dictator                . proofread the transcript carefully be

d follow the confusing items . consulting the   dictator              . proofread the transcript carefully b
sadvantages : training time required for the    dictator              and transcriptionist ; resistance of p
use equipment ; no immediate contact between    dictator              and transcriptionist difficulty in
ity and efficiency ; makes better use of the    dictator              and transcriptionist' s time ; is the
contained , hand-held unit which enables the    dictator              to dictate material outside the office
 or a telephone -- which are located at each    dictator's            desk . advantages and disadvantages of
 or a telephone -- which are located at each    dictator's            desk . the medium is removed from the
al ; closing lines : complimentary closing ;    dictator's            name and title ; carbon copies , encl
ol device -- used to adjust the pitch of the    dictator's            voice . recall switch -- used to auto
or transcription unit ; word division book ;    dictionary            ; other special references . prepare t
contact between dictator and transcriptionist   difficulty            in transcriptionist understanding the
( note : refer to the operator' s manual for    directions            on operating the unit . ) check to se
 shorthand ; easier to distribute workload .    disadvantages         : training time required for the dict
ted at each dictator's desk . advantages and    disadvantages         of dictation/transcription equipment
cord and store information ( i . e . , floppy   disc                  , magnetic card ) . transcribe -- to
et -- used to listen to dictation . types of    discrete              media : magnetic cards ; magnetic tap
moved ( i . e . , magnetic card , cassette ) .  discrete              media can be removed from the dictati
sed , either discrete or endless loop media .   discrete              media equipment -- this equipment use
 play back or filed for later use . types of    discrete              media equipment . portable dictation
by the type of recording media used , either    discrete              or endless loop media . discrete medi
ic cards ; magnetic tape cassettes ; magnetic   discs                 . endless loop system -- dictation eq
cribe than longhand and shorthand ; easier to   distribute            workload . disadvantages : training t
```

Figure # 8

Figure # 9 shows a sample of a reverse alphabetic concordance, again focusing on the ending -ing. The use of this ending to form participles, adjectives, or nouns becomes obvious through this listing; you can thereby get a clear idea of the problems the student is likely to face when trying to make sense out of this ending in English.

Figure # 9 Concordance of Text Items in Reverse Alphabetic Order

```
TS . NEW PARTS MAY BE DIFFERENTIATED ,          CAUSING  SUPERNUMERARY CUSPS UR ROUTS . WITH A DEFIP
TIUN AFFECT THE INTERDENTAL PAPILLAE ,          CAUSING  FIRST INFLAMMATIUN , THEN BLUNTING ANF
 INCUMING CALLS MAY GET THROUGH . WHEN      ORIGINATING  CALLS , BE SURE YOU HAVE ALL THE INFORMATI(
R FUSSURE MAY BE PRESENT AND PARTIALLY       SEPARATING  THE ADJOINING CUSPS . I A FISSURE IS A FAUI
BOTH AS AN ANCHORING LIGAMENT AND AS A       SEPARATING  TISSUE . HOLDS THE TOUTH IN PLACE AND
 KEY TO A WELL ORGANIZED , EFFICIENTLY        OPERATING  DENTAL PRACTICE . A POURLY MANAGED BUSINES:
 $UI $HI $P $UI TELEPHONE RECALL $UI .      CONTACTING  THE RECALL PATIENTS BY TELEPHONE IS AN
 LINES ACROSS THE ENAMEL ROD STRUCTURE       REFLECTING  THE INCREMENTAL PATTERN OF GROWTH . INCREMI
ON . IT IS A STIPPLED , DENSE TISSUE , SELF-PROTECTING  IN FORM , AND IS FIRMLY BOUND AND RESILIEN
AL JUNCTION -- THE PLANE FORMED BY THE          MEETING  OF THE DENTIN AND THE CEMENTUM . DENTINOEN/
IEL JUNCTION -- THE PLANE FORMED BY THE         MEETING  OF THE DENTIN AND ENAMEL . DENTINOGENESIS
GUOD APPOINTMENT CONTROL PREVENTS LONG          WAITING  PERIODS . $P THE RECEPTION RUOM SHOULD BE
LENGTH OF HIS WAIT . IN SOME OFFICES ,          WAITING  PATIENTS ARE OFFERED A CHOICE OF COFFEE OR
OU SHUULD EXPLAIN THE SITUATION TO THE          WAITING  PATIENT AND ASK HIS COOPERATION . APPOINTMI
I LOCAL TRAUMA CAUSED BY HABITS SUCH AS          BITING  ON HARD OBJECTS , OR THE ENTIRE DENTITION I
ILARLY ARRANGED . THE TEETH OF CHILDREN      EXHIBITING  THIS CONDITION AND CHARACTERISTIC FOR EACH
OF THE LETTER , THE NAME OF THE PERSON          WRITING  THE LETTER SHOULD BE WRITTEN OUT . IT CAN I
R-PRODUCING CELLS . FISSURE -- A FAULT        RESULTING  AT THE JUNCTURE OF TWO D DEVELOPMENTAL CEN'
AE , CAUSING FIRST INFLAMMATICN , THEN         BLUNTING  ANF CRATERING . $P ATTACHED GINGIVA EXTENDS
RSELF WITH ANY BUSINESS MANAGEMENT AND       ACCOUNTING  COURSES THAT ARE AVAILABLE TO HER . $HI $UI
IAKE WISE USE OF THE RESCHEDULED TIME .          NOTING  THE PATIENT'S TELEPHONE NUMBER NEXT TO HIS
I ARE LOST AND THE FUNCTIONAL DEMAND OF      SUPPORTING  THE TEETH CEASES TO EXIST . ALVEOLAR SOCKE:
ZED 30 MINUTE APPOINTMENT -- NOR IS HE          WASTING  THE BALANCE OF A ONE HOUR APPOINTMENT . $HI
LIDES . $P A CROSS-REFERENCE FILE IS A          LISTING  , USUALLY ALPHABETICAL , TO ENABLE ONE TO
 DESCRIBED AS THE ACT OF GRINDING OR "         GRITTING  " THE TEETH , ESPECIALLY DURING SLEEP . POI
 . BRUXISM -- THE ACT OF GRINDING OR "         GRITTING  " THE TEETH , PARTICULARLY DURING SLEEP .
E . 3. MEETINGS -- REGULAR MEETINGS OR       CONTINUING  EDUCATION COURSES WHEN THE DENTIST WILL AL
```

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FIGURE # 10: SAMPLE GRAMMATICAL CODES

CODE	EXPLANATION	EXAMPLES
ACO	An adjective (A) with the comparative ending (C), and used both with nouns and as a verbal complement (O).	taller bigger greener
APO	An adjective (A), which takes endings when compared, but which occurs here in its positive form (P) and which is used both with nouns and as a verbal complement (O).	tall big green
ASO	An adjective (A), with the superlative ending (S), and used both with nouns and as a verbal complement (O).	tallest biggest greenest
AUO	An adjective (A) which does not take endings when compared (U), and which is used both before nouns and as a complement with verbs (O).	famous formal
AUR	An adjective (A) which does not take endings (U), and which is used only before nouns (R).	main former same
CA	A conjunction (C) which introduces relative (A) clauses.	that
CDF	A conjunction (C) which introduces adverbial (D) clauses which are conditional (F).	if
CDG	A conjunction (C) which introduces adverbial (D) clauses of concession (G).	though
CDT	A conjunction (C) which introduces adverbial (D) clauses of time (T).	when

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DOCUMENTS

TXTPRO PROTOCOLS

(From Berry et. al., (9) pg. 105-106)

EXHIBIT 18

TEXT ENTRY PROTOCOLS
FOR IBM-PC AND IBM-COMPATIBLE COMPUTERS

Rules to follow when text is entered into a computer system for subsequent analysis by TXTPRO:

- Computer system protocols:
  - System must have MS/DOS or PC/DOS operating system
  - System must have at least 1 disk drive
  - System must support data entry through an editor and storage of resultant file on a floppy diskette
  - System must be able to run the TXTPRO program
  - Backup text during key entry to diskette approximately after every input page has been completed
  - Backup entire diskette containing input text files at least daily
  - If different systems are to be used for data entry and execution, then verify compatibility of these two systems.
- TXTPRO protocols:
  - Input text must be in a disk file with records 80 characters in length, maximum
  - Each input text file line must end with an ASCII 013 end-of-line character
  - No text item can be longer than 20 characters, or it will be truncated on the right end
  - No text item can be continued onto the following line of the input file
  - At least one blank space must separate text items on a line of input text
  - Non-print characters may not be used instead of blank characters
  - Extra blanks anywhere on an input text line are allowed
  - Text items may begin in column 1 or end in column 80
  - If an item ends in column 80, the next item may begin in column 1 of the next input text line

- Linguistic protocols:
  - All punctuation marks occurring at the end of a text item will be separated automatically by TXTPRO
  - Do not enter double quotation marks (")
  - If parentheses ( ) or brackets [ ] are entered, leave at least one blank space between ( ) and [ ] and text item
  - Upper-case in the input text will be ignored by TXTPRO
  - Multiple-item semantic units should be joined by a hyphen (-) and no blank spaces

EXHIBIT 17

ITEMS OR FORMATS INAPPROPRIATE FOR DATA ENTRY OR COMPUTER ANALYSIS

- Graphic symbols that are representations of technical terms
- Characters in a non-Latin alphabet system, such as Greek, Russian or Chinese
- Charts, tables, columnar listings that are not read from left to right, row by row
- Figures, pictures, diagrams, flow charts
- Exponents and subscripts, square roots
- Descriptions or labels appearing under a sentence, referring to specific items in the sentence.

HOW TO RUN TXTPRO

(Berry _et. al_., (9) pp. 99-104)

EXHIBIT 16

GUIDE FOR RUNNING TXTPRO
On IBM-PC and IBM-Compatible Computers

1. Boot up computer. Have PCDOS/MSDOS/TXTPRO disk in Drive A; your data disk in Drive B. Make sure printer is on-line.

2. Computer will give the prompt: A>

3. Type in `DIR B:` to ensure the input file is on the disk. This should be a copy of the file, and the only file on the disk.

4. Computer will give the prompt: A>

5. Type in `TXTPRO TOP SAVE`

6. Computer will list program information for about 15-20 seconds.

7. Computer will show:

```
                 TXTPRO
        Text Processing System

        (Hit any key to begin)
```

8. Hit any key on the typewriter portion of the keyboard.

9. Computer will show:

```
     Diskette  in  Drive  A:  must  have  TXTPRO  program.  Insert
     diskette  with  input  text  and  scratch  space  in  Drive  B:.
                   (Hit any key when ready.)
```

10. Hit any key on the typewriter portion of the keyboard.

11. Computer will show:

```
     Enter name of input data file
     Be sure to hit ENTER key when through.
     (Default input file name is B:MYDATA.DAT)
     ?
```

12. Type in `B:(FILENAME)`

13. Computer will show:

```
     Now analyzing and sorting the input text file . . .
```

(You will hear the disk drives in operation.)

14. Computer will show:

    Want an alphabetic word-frequency listing? (Y/N)

15. Type in $\boxed{Y}$

16. Computer will show:

    Now preparing word frequency analysis . . .
    (Be sure printer is on-line.)

    (Printer will begin printing the listing immediately after advancing the page.)

17. Computer will:

    beep
    and print:

    Want a frequency-order word-frequency report? (Y/N)

18. Pull out listing; advance paper.

19. Type in $\boxed{Y}$

20. Computer will show:

    Frequency-order word-frequency report now in process . . .

    (You will hear the disk drives in operation.)

21. Computer will show:

    Now printing frequency-order word-frequency listing . . .
    (Be sure printer is on-line.)

    (Printer will begin printing the listing immediately after advancing the page.)

22. Computer will:

    beep
    and print:

    Want a reverse-alphabetic word-frequency report? (Y/N)

23. Pull out listing; advance paper.

24. Type in $\boxed{Y}$

25. Computer will show:

    Reverse-alphabetic word-frequency report now in preparation . . .

    (You will hear the disk drives in operation.)

26. Computer will show:

    ```
    Now printing reverse-alphabetic word-frequency listing . . .
    (Be sure printer is on-line.)
    ```

    (Printer will begin printing the listing immediately after advancing the page.)

27. Computer will show:

    ```
    End of report.
    ```

    and will:
    buzz
    and print:

    ```
    Want an alphabetic-order concordance report?  (Y/N)
    ```

28. Pull out listing; advance paper.

29. Type in `Y`

30. Computer screen will go blank, then print:

    ```
    Now preparing input text for concordance generation.
    ```

    (You will hear the disk drives in operation. This can take a very long time, depending on the size of the input file.)

31. Computer will beep.

32. Computer will show:

    ```
    Enter number of item at which concordance will begin.
    Be sure to hit RETURN key after entering number.
    (Just hit RETURN key to start at beginning of text.)
    Starting number?
    ```

33. Hit `RETURN`

34. Computer will show:

    ```
    Concordance generation will begin at item #1
    OK?  (Y/N)
    ```

35. Type in `Y`

36. Computer will show:

```
The following items will be filtered from the KWIC output:

     the
     a
     and
     of
     an
     to
     for
     in
     (all punctuation)
     (all numbers)
     Enter number of next action (1, 2 or 3)
     1 -- Keep list of items as it is.
     2 -- Drop an item from the list.
     3 -- Replace an item on the list.
```

37. Type in $\boxed{1}$

38. Computer will show:

```
Concordance length 80 or 132?
1 -- Produce 80-column concordance.
2 -- Produce 132-column concordance.
```

39. Type in $\boxed{2}$ (if your printer can print 132 characters to a line)

40. Computer will show:

```
Concordance building continues . . .
```

(You will hear the disk drives in operation.)

41a. If all of the data in the input file can be printed in one concordance, the computer will show:

```
Now printing sorted concordance on line printer . . .
```

b. If all of the data in the input file cannot be printed in one concordance, the computer will show:

```
Maximum disk capacity reached.
Concordance generation is halted.
Last text item was (do).
This was item number (1337) in the input text.

Last concordance line generated was:

; the ability to spell words correctly.  the ability to do
basic arithmetic:  to check figures for
```

(You will hear the disk drives in operation; the above message will remain on the screen. You do not need to type anything in. If you will be running another concordance after this one is printed out, you will ask for the starting number of the item following the last item processed -- #1338 in above example.)

42. Computer will show:

```
Now printing sorted concordance on line printer . . .
```

43. Computer will:

beep
and will show:

```
Want to produce another concordance report segment?  (Y/N)
```

44a. If Step 41a. occurred, there will be no further data to process and you should type in $\boxed{N}$. The computer will show:

```
Now leaving the TXTPRO batch file . . .
A>
```

b. If Step 41b. occurred, you may want to produce another concordance segment. If so, type in $\boxed{Y}$. Computer will repeat steps 32-43. Remember to enter the next item (1338 in this sample), not item 1.

45. If the data were not all processed, the steps will be repeated. If not, end TXTPRO by typing $\boxed{N}$ and the message in 44a. will appear.

46. Take out concordance listing from printer. Take out disks. Turn computer and printer off.

FREQUENCY INDEX OF:
FUNCTION WORDS
SUBTECHNICAL WORDS
TECHNICAL WORDS FOR 6 FIELDS

(Berry et. al., (9), pp. 41-52)

Key to Vocational Terminology Listings

1. Includes all words with SFI (Standard Frequency Index) of 70.0 or higher - 111 words.
2. SFI of 65.6 to 70.0, 154 words
3. SFI of 58.9 to 65.6, 815 words
4. SFI of 49.6 to 58.9, 4,240 words

All four lists cover 5,320 words or 90% of running count in General English.*

CODES

# ADP:	Words are ranked in order of frequency of occurrence in the 6 occupational areas; 1 is the most frequent, 2 is the second most frequent, etc.
# G.E.:	Words are ranked by categories, numbered 1-4. Category 1 contains the most frequently occurring words in general English, and Category 4 contains the least frequently occurring words in general English.*
# FIELDS:	The first number represents the number of occupational areas in which the word occurred at least one time. The numbers in parentheses are code numbers for the occupation in which the word occurred. The codes for the fields are:

1 = Auto Mechanics
2 = House Repair
3 = Data Entry/Keypunch
4 = Dental Assisting
5 = Electricity
6 = Food Service

---

* Source: Singleton, Carlton. (1980) "A Survey of the Frequency of Lexical Items in General English." Arlington, VA: Precision Teaching, Inc.

FUNCTION WORDS

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
the	1	1	6
of	2	1	6
to	3	1	6
and	4	1	6
a	5	1	6
is	6	1	6
in	7	1	6
be	8	1	6
or	9	1	6
are	10	1	6
for	11	1	6
it	12	1	6
with	13	1	6
on	14	1	6
as	15	1	6
that	16	1	6
will	17	1	6
by	18	1	6
this	19	1	6
from	20	1	6
on	21	1	6
when	22	1	6
you	23	1	6
at	24	1	6
used	25	2	6
if	26	1	6
can	27	1	6
not	28	1	6
into	30	1	6
one	31	1	6
may	32	1	6
use	33	1	6
which	34	1	6
have	36	1	6
has	37	1	6
must	38	2	6
through	39	1	6
all	40	1	6
should	42	2	6
two	43	1	6
up	45	1	6
they	46	1	6
each	47	1	6
other	50	1	6
also	51	2	5
more	54	1	6
these	58	1	6
some	59	1	5

FUNCTION WORDS, p. 2

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
between	61	2	6
its	62	1	4
than	63	1	6
then	66	1	5
out	69	1	6
so	70	1	5
any	74	2	6
such	76	2	5
do	80	1	6
down	83	1	6
first	88	1	6
most	90	1	6
both	91	2	5
your	93	1	5
before	94	1	6
there	99	1	5
but	100	1	5
how	108	1	5
them	118	1	5
been	121	1	6
using	124	3	6
no	125	1	6
usually	141	3	5
what	142	1	4
their	148	1	5
would	149	1	4
many	154	1	4
does	185	2	6
however	190	2	4
three	192	2	5
where	193	1	4
very	198	1	4
being	221	2	5
too	320	2	4

SUBTECHNICAL WORDS

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
water	41	1	5
surface	48	3	4
pressure	49	4	4
oil	52	3	3
system	55	3	4
air	56	2	4
type	60	3	5
work	71	2	5
current	72	4	3 (1,3,5)
end	73	2	5
area	75	3	5
time	78	1	6
position	79	3	6
circuit	82	4	3 (1,2,5)
make	84	1	5
side	85	2	5
unit	87	3	6
made	89	1	6 see 84
place	92	2	5
cut	95	3	3 (1,2,6)
placed	96	3	4 see 92
line	97	3	4
field	101	3	3 (1,3,5)
same	102	2	5
over	103	1	5
small	104	2	4
only	105	1	6
see	106	1	5
wall	107	3	3
around	109	2	5
remove	110	4	5
power	111	3	4
top	112	3	5
heat	113	3	4
turn	114	3	5
high	115	2	5
after	116	1	5
number	119	2	6
off	123	2	5
right	126	2	6
material	128	3	4
control	130	3	5
open	131	3	5
steel	132	4	4
note	134	2	5
operator	135	-	3
speed	136	3	4
part	137	2	5

SUBTECHNICAL WORDS, p. 2

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
center	138	4	4
metal	139	4	3
parts	140	2	4
dry	143	3	3
types	146	3	5 see 60
under	147	2	4
wire	150	3	4
form	152	2	4
long	156	1	5
back	157	1	5
set	158	2	5
hand	160	2	4
about	161	1	5
until	162	2	6
left	163	2	6
against	164	3	4
point	166	3	4
during	167	2	4
size	171	3	6
called	172	1	5
job	174	3	4
provide	175	4	3
necessary	176	3	5
primary	177	4	2
clean	179	3	3
another	180	2	5
front	182	3	3
surfaces	187	3	2 (2,5) see 48
temperature	188	3	3
amount	194	3	4
cause	199	3	5
good	200	1	5
will	201	2	5
without	202	2	5
keep	203	2	4
prevent	204	4	4
shown	205	3	3
check	207	3	5
either	208	3	8
switch	173	4	5
contact	211	4	3
special	212	3	3
length	214	3	4
inch	216	3	3
designed	218	4	2 (1,4)
light	222	2	6
bottom	225	3	3
inches	227	3	2 (2,6) see 216

SUBTECHNICAL WORDS, p. 3

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS	
new	228	1	4	
action	233	3	3	
body	234	3	3	
together	235	2	4	
because	237	2	4	
materials	239	3	4	see 128
second	242	2	5	
close	243	3	5	
low	244	3	4	
opening	245	3	3	
way	246	1	3	
level	250	3	4	
per	251	3	4	
possible	252	3	4	
angle	255	4	3	
inside	258	3	3	
often	259	2	3	
removed	260	4	4	
equipment	263	4	4	
several	265	3	4	
electrical	267	4	4	
allow	268	4	4	
lower	269	3	5	
large	271	2	4	
cutting	272	3	3	
basic	279	3	6	
liquid	280	4	3	
complete	285	3	4	
room	287	3	4	
available	288	4	3	
generally	289	4	3	
less	290	3	5	
procedure	293	4	2	
portion	295	4	3	
need	296	2	3	
proper	297	4	4	
across	298	2	4	
even	300	2	3	
always	303	2	5	
lines	304	3	3	
means	305	3	4	
base	306	3	4	
holes	309	3	3	
applied	311	4	2	
heavy	312	3	4	
hot	313	3	3	
operation	314	4	3	

SUBTECHNICAL WORDS, p. 4

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
aluminum	315	4	3
free	316	3	3
service	317	4	3
uses	318	3	4
much	319	1	3
ground	322	3	3
various	323	3	3
forms	327	3	3
produce	331	3	2
sure	332	3	2
while	335	2	3
color	336	3	4
cover	337	3	3
just	338	1	4
sides	339	3	3
device	341	4	2
handle	342	4	3
shape	343	3	3
enough	345	2	2
connected	346	4	3
plastic	348	4	4
feet	349	2	2
function	350	4	3
tools	351	4	3
within	352	3	2
above	353	2	4
weight	355	3	2
outside	357	3	2
process	358	3	2
section	359	3	3
series	360	4	3
table	364	3	3
press	365	4	2
since	366	2	4
electric	369	3	4
move	372	3	3
avoid	373	4	3
name	375	2	3
smooth	377	4	2
construction	378	4	2
ends	379	3	2
operating	382	4	3
direction	385	3	2
paper	386	2	3
needed	391	3	3
areas	394	3	4
certain	396	3	3
passes	404	3	2

SUBTECHNICAL WORDS, p. 5

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
entire	407	4	3
design	409	4	2
electricity	411	4	2 see 369, 267
chapter	414	4	2
following	415	2	2
thus	417	3	2
space	424	3	3
study	425	2	2
information	427	3	3
iron	428	3	2
specific	433	4	3
secondary	437	-	2
take	439	2	3
toward	440	3	2
closed	444	3	2
energy	445	3	2
fill	451	3	3
main	452	3	2
mix	453	4	2
give	458	2	3
sometimes	462	2	2
never	466	2	2
replace	477	4	2
similar	479	3	2
below	482	2	2
important	483	2	3
next	486	2	2
now	487	1	3
effect	491	4	2

TECHNICAL WORDS

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
engine	35	3	1(1)
valve	44	-	3
tooth	53	4	1(4)
teeth	57	3	2(1,4)
piston	64	-	1(1)
gear	65	4	1(1)
cylinder	67	4	2(1,4)
dental	68	-	1(4)
patient	77	4	1(4)
shaft	86	4	2(1,6)
voltage	117	-	2(1,5)
assistant	120	-	1(4)
fuel	122	4	1(1)
card	127	4	1(3)
wood	129	3	1(2)
brake	133	4	1(1)
film	144	4	1(4)
flow	145	4	2(1,5)
food	151	2	2(4,6)
paint	153	4	1(2)
spring	155	3	2(1,2)
wheel	159	4	2(1,6)
car	165	3	1(1)
key	168	3	1(3)
vacuum	169	4	2(1,4)
program	170	4	2(3,4)
force	173	3	2(1,5)
record	178	3	2(3,5)
machine	183	3	2(3,6)
clutch	184	-	1(1)
drive	186	3	2(1,2)
cavity	189	-	1(4)
ring	191	3	1(1)
transmission	195	-	1(1)
battery	196	4	1(1)
rod	197	4	2(1,5)
preparation	209	4	2(4,6)
head	213	2	3(1,2,4)
pump	215	4	1(1)
bearing	217	4	1(1)
pipe	219	4	2(1,2)
steering	223	4	1(1)
tissue	224	4	1(4)
door	226	3	2(2,6)
exhaust	229	-	1(1)
data	230	4	1(3)

TECHNICAL WORDS, p. 2

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
block	231	4	2(1,2)
joints	232	-	2(1,2)
coil	236	-	1(1)
torque	238	-	1(1)
joint	240	4	2(1,2) (see 232)
oral	241	-	1(4)
mouth	247	3	1(4)
brush	248	4	3(2,4,6)
resistance	249	4	2(1,5)
rubber	253	4	2(1,4)
blade	254	4	3(2,4,6)
enamel	256	-	1(4)
gasoline	257	4	1(1)
concrete	261	4	1(2)
crankshaft	262	-	1(1)
points	264	3	2(1,5)
engines	270	3	1(1) see 35
disk	273	-	1(3)
hole	274	3	2(1,2)
cement	275	4	2(2,4)
floor	276	3	2(2,6)
mortar	277	-	1(2)
intake	278	-	1(1)
plate	281	4	3(1,2,6)
rear	282	4	1(1)
axle	283	-	1(1)
his	284	1	1(4)
plug	286	-	2(1,2)
mixture	294	4	1(1)
walls	299	3	1(2)
saw	301	2	1(2)
carburetor	307	-	1(1)
generator	308	-	1(1)
finish	310	4	1(2)
cooling	321	-	1(1)
frame	325	4	3(1,2,6)
pan	326	4	1(6)
solution	328	4	2(4,6)
tank	329	4	2(1,2)
housing	330	-	1(1)
treatment	333	4	1(4)
wheels	334	4	1(1)
crown	340	4	1(4)
stroke	344	4	1(1)
dam	345	4	1(4)
gold	354	3	1(4)
cylinders	357	-	1(1) see 67

TECHNICAL WORDS, p. 3

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
tire	361	4	1(1)
dentist	362	-	1(4)
patient's	363	-	1(4) see 77
spark	367	4	1(1)
compound	368	4	2(2,4)
ignition	370	-	1(1)
mode	371	-	1(3)
electrons	374	4	2(1,5)
restoration	376	-	1(4)
gears	380	-	1(1) see 65
tiles	383	-	1(2)
diaphragm	384	-	1(1)
valves	387	-	1(1)
coat	388	4	1(2)
column	389	4	1(3)
house	390	2	2(2,5)
camshaft	395	-	1(1)
maxillary	397	-	1(4)
plane	398	3	2(2,4)
square	399	3	1(2)
throttle	400	-	1(1)
arm	401	3	1(1)
handpiece	402	-	1(4)
occlusal	403	-	1(4)
pulp	405	-	1(4)
charge	406	4	2(1,5)
timing	408	-	1(1)
edge	410	3	1(2)
foods	412	2	2(4,6)
instrument	416	4	1(4)
anesthesia	418	-	1(4)
apply	419	4	1(2)
connecting	420	4	2(1,5)
differential	421	-	1(1)
fluid	422	-	1(1)
rotor	423	-	1(1)
dentin	426	-	1(4)
magnetic	429	4	1(1)
sand	430	3	1(2)
horsepower	431	-	1(1)
screw	432	-	2(1,2)
assembly	434	4	1(1)
drain	435	-	2(2,6)
gingival	436	-	1(4)
shoes	438	3	2(1,6)
ball	442	3	2(1,5)
cam	443	-	1(1)

TECHNICAL WORDS, p. 4

WORD	# ADP	# G.E.	# FIELDS
shows	446	3	2(1,5)
surgical	447	-	1(4)
attached	449	4	1(1)
diameter	450	4	2(1,2)
placement	454	-	1(4)
chamber	455	4	1(1)
compression	456	-	1(1)
general	457	3	1(4)
mandibular	459	-	1(4)
old	460	2	1(2)
rings	461	3	1(1)
tile	463	-	1(2) see 383
full	464	3	2(1,6)
meat	465	3	1(6)
office	467	3	1(4)
sheet	468	4	1(6)
ceiling	469	4	1(2)
face	470	3	2(1,2)
foil	471	-	2(4,5)
mounted	472	4	2(1,2)
operate	473	4	2(1,6)
pinion	474	-	1(1)
punch	475	-	1(3)
punched	476	-	1(3)
roller	478	-	2(1,2)
turns	480	3	1(1)
wear	481	3	2(1,2)
instruments	484	4	1(4) see 416
knife	485	4	2(2,6)
windows	488	3	1(2)
bearings	489	-	1(1)
case	490	3	2(1,5)
file	492	4	2(2,4)
known	493	3	1(4)
manifold	494	-	1(1)
nails	495	4	1(2)
negative	496	4	2(1,5)
output	497	4	1(1)
pattern	498	3	2(2,4)
return	499	3	2(1,3)
springs	500	3	1(1)

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SAMPLE TXTPRO WORD PROCESSING

TEXT ANALYSIS

ALPHABETIC ORDER WITH FREQUENCY COUNT

```
                    TXTPRO Text Processing System

           Word-Frequency Summary for Text in File b:wp6.ibm

                           Alphabetic Order

--------------------------------------------------------------------------------

        Text Item                            Frequency

        (                                      7
        )                                      7
        ,                                      33
        --                                     27
        .                                      79
        :                                      30
        ;                                      36
        a                                      22
        ability                                4
        according                              2
        accordingly                            1
        accurately                             1
        addressee                              1
        addresses                              1
        adjust                                 2
        advantages                             2
        again                                  1
        an                                     3
        and                                    37
        any                                    2
        appropriate                            1
        approximate                            1
        are                                    6
        area                                   2
        arrange                                1
        arts                                   1
        as                                     3
        at                                     5
        attention                              1
        automatically                          1
        available                              1
        back                                   3
        be                                     11
        been                                   1
        before                                 2
        beginning                              1
        being                                  2
        better                                 1
        between                                1
        body                                   1
        book                                   1
        books                                  1
        both                                   1
        by                                     7
        can                                    3
        capabilities                           1
        capitalization                         1
        capturing                              1
        carbon                                 2
        card                                   2
        cards                                  1
        carefully                              1
        cassette                               1
        cassettes                              1
        categorized                            1
```

cassettes	1
categorized	1
centralized-recording	1
check	1
checked	1
clarified	1
clean	1
clear	1
clearly	1
closely	1
closing	2
combination	1
complimentary	1
concentrate	1
confusing	3
connected	2
consists	1
consulting	1
contact	1
control	6
controls	1
copies	2
copy	2
correct	3
correcting	1
cover	2
cueing	1
day	1
dear	2
decrease	1
definitions	1
depressing	1
desk	3
desk-top	2
determine	3
develop	1
device	6
devices	2
dictate	3
dictated	3
dictates	1
dictating	3
dictation	19
dictation/transcription	4
dictator	6
dictator's	4
dictionary	1
difficulty	1
directions	1
disadvantages	2
disc	1
discrete	5
discs	1
distribute	1
division	1
do	2
document	1
documents	1
during	1
e	2
each	5
easier	2
editing	1
efficiency	1
effort	1
either	3
electronic	1
eliminate	1

either	3
electronic	1
eliminate	1
enables	1
enclosed	1
enclosures	1
end	2
endless	3
entered	1
envelopes	1
equipment	8
errors	2
etc	4
even	1
faster	1
features	1
few	1
file	1
filed	1
final	1
find	1
first	1
floppy	1
follow	1
following	4
font	5
for	11
form	1
format	2
from	6
gather	1
gets	1
group	2
hand-held	1
handbook	1
handling	1
has	1
headset	4
i	2
identifying	1
if	1
immediate	1
in	10
include	2
includes	1
increase	1
increases	1
indents	1
index	1
indicate	2
indistinguishable	1
information	4
instructions	3
into	3
is	11
it	2
item	4
items	4
john	1
language	1
last	1
later	1
length	2
letter	1
letterhead	1
lines	3
listen	2
listening	6

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pitch	1
place	1
placed	3
places	1
plain	1
play	3
playback	2
plugged	2
points	1
portable	1
precede	1
prepare	2
prepared	1
preview	1
priorities	1
priority	1
private	2
procedures	1
process	1
processes	1
produce	1
produced	1
produces	1
productivity	1
proofread	2
proper	1
properly	1
punctuate	1
punctuation	2
quickest	1
quickly	1
quotation	1
rapidly	1
recall	1
record	2
recorded	4
recording	11
refer	1
reference	3
references	1
remember	1
remove	1
removed	3
removing	2
repeated	1
replay	2
required	1
resistance	1
rhythm	1
run	1
s	3
said	1
salutation	1
saves	2
secretarial	1
see	1
self-contained	1
sense	1
sentences	2
set	1
shorthand	1
skills	6
slip	1
slur	1
smith	1
so	1
softness	1
speak	2
special	4

speak	2
special	4
speed	3
spell	1
spelling	2
start	1
steps	1
stop	1
stopping	1
store	2
styles	1
subject	1
such	2
supplies	3
switch	1
system	2
tank	1
tape	2
techniques	2
telephone	4
terms	1
than	1
that	11
the	76
then	2
these	2
thinking	1
this	1
three	1
throughout	1
time	4
title	1
to	43
together	1
tone	2
training	1
transcribe	6
transcribed	2
transcribing	4
transcript	2
transcription	17
transcriptionist	5
transcriptionist'	1
turn	2
type	1
typed	1
types	2
typewriter	5
typewriting	1
typewritten	1
typing	2
typist	1
understand	1
understanding	1
unit	28
units	1
up	1
usage	1
use	4
used	10
uses	2
utensils	1
verified	1
verify	1
voice	1
volume	2
whatever	1
when	1

```
         whatever                                 1
         when                                     1
         which                                    9
         who                                      3
         will                                     2
         wire                                     2
         with                                     1
         word                                     2
         words                                    7
         work                                     3
         workload                                 1
         you                                      2
         your                                     1


Total items found in the input text:  1270
Total unique items found in the input text:  396


End of report.
```

228

SAMPLE TXTPRO WORD PROCESSING TEXT ANALYSIS

REVERSE ALPHABETIC ORDER WITH FREQUENCY COUNT

```
                 TXTPRO Text Processing System

        Word-Frequency Summary for Text in File b:wp6.ibm

                   Reverse Alphabetic Order

-------------------------------------------------------------------------------

               Text Item                   Frequency

               operator'                      2
       transcriptionist'                      1
                       (                      7
                       )                      7
                       ,                      33
                      --                      27
                       .                      79
                       :                      30
                       ;                      36
                       a                      22
                    area                      2
                   media                      7
              electronic                      1
                magnetic                      7
                    disc                      1
                     etc                      4
              letterhead                      1
               proofread                      2
                workload                      1
             transcribed                      2
                  placed                      3
                produced                      1
                  needed                      1
                recorded                      4
                    need                      4
                   speed                      3
                 plugged                      2
               clarified                      1
                verified                      1
                 checked                      1
                   filed                      1
          self-contained                      1
                   typed                      1
                prepared                      1
                 entered                      1
                required                      1
                enclosed                      1
               processed                      1
                    used                      10
                 located                      2
                repeated                      1
                dictated                      3
               connected                      2
                 omitted                      1
                 removed                      3
             categorized                      1
                    said                      1
               hand-held                      1
                     and                      37
                longhand                      1
               shorthand                      1
```

and	37
longhand	1
shorthand	1
understand	1
end	2
find	1
method	1
card	2
record	2
word	2
e	2
be	11
transcribe	6
place	1
pace	1
office	1
voice	1
device	6
resistance	1
reference	3
produce	1
precede	1
outside	1
include	2
three	1
see	1
addressee	1
message	1
usage	1
language	1
arrange	1
the	76
make	3
indistinguishable	1
mailable	1
available	1
portable	1
file	1
title	1
name	3
time	4
volume	2
machine	2
outline	1
determine	3
telephone	4
microphone	2
tone	2
tape	2
type	1
are	6
prepare	2
wire	2
before	2
store	2
decrease	1
increase	1
phrase	1
these	2
sense	1
use	4
indicate	2
immediate	1
appropriate	1
approximate	1
eliminate	1
concentrate	1

dictate	3
punctuate	1
private	2
discrete	5
note	2
cassette	1
distribute	1
remove	1
organize	3
off	1
if	1
of	26
transcribing	4
understanding	1
according	2
recording	11
being	2
cueing	1
thinking	1
handling	1
mailing	1
spelling	2
listening	6
training	1
beginning	1
stopping	1
typing	2
during	1
capturing	1
closing	2
depressing	1
confusing	3
operating	1
dictating	3
correcting	1
editing	1
typewriting	1
consulting	1
removing	2
following	4
identifying	1
each	5
which	9
pitch	1
switch	1
such	2
length	2
smith	1
with	1
both	1
i	2
speak	2
back	3
playback	2
check	1
tank	1
book	1
handbook	1
work	3
paperwork	1
desk	3
logical	2
pedal	5
special	4
secretarial	1
material	7
final	1
manual	2

material	7
final	1
manual	2
personnel	1
recall	1
spell	1
will	2
control	6
centralized-recordin	1
item	4
system	2
rhythm	1
from	6
form	1
medium	6
an	3
can	3
clean	1
than	1
been	1
between	1
then	2
when	1
listen	2
typewritten	1
even	1
john	1
in	10
again	1
plain	1
on	5
carbon	2
division	1
information	4
combination	1
dictation	19
quotation	1
salutation	1
punctuation	2
capitalization	1
attention	1
transcription	17
person	3
turn	2
run	1
do	2
who	3
memo	1
no	1
so	1
to	43
into	3
slip	1
develop	1
loop	3
desk-top	2
stop	1
up	1
group	2
dear	2
clear	1
remember	1
number	2
order	1
refer	1
gather	1
together	1
either	3

either	3
other	1
easier	2
paper	3
proper	1
later	1
typewriter	5
faster	1
better	1
letter	1
whatever	1
cover	2
or	15
for	11
dictator	6
occur	1
slur	1
your	1
s	3
dictator's	4
as	3
has	1
discs	1
cards	1
words	7
places	1
devices	2
references	1
sentences	2
produces	1
includes	1
advantages	2
disadvantages	2
supplies	3
copies	2
capabilities	1
priorities	1
makes	1
enables	1
styles	1
names	3
lines	3
envelopes	1
types	2
procedures	1
enclosures	1
features	1
increases	1
phrases	1
addresses	1
uses	2
originates	1
dictates	1
notes	2
cassettes	1
techniques	2
saves	2
paragraphs	1
is	11
this	1
books	1
marks	1
materials	2
utensils	1
skills	6
controls	1
ms	1
items	4

controls	1
ms	1
items	4
terms	1
margins	1
notations	2
directions	1
instructions	3
definitions	1
steps	1
errors	2
process	1
endless	3
loudness	1
softness	1
gets	1
units	1
indents	1
documents	1
points	1
arts	1
consists	1
at	5
that	11
format	2
contact	1
subject	1
correct	3
set	1
headset	4
it	2
unit	28
equipment	8
document	1
not	2
foot	5
transcript	2
start	1
effort	1
last	1
quickest	1
transcriptionist	5
typist	1
first	1
adjust	2
out	1
throughout	1
you	2
few	1
preview	1
follow	1
index	1
day	1
play	3
replay	2
may	1
pay	1
by	7
efficiency	1
body	1
money	1
verify	1
rapidly	1
closely	1
accurately	1
accordingly	1
quickly	1
automatically	1

```
             quickly                          1
       automatically                          1
            mentally                          1
           carefully                          1
             clearly                          1
            properly                          1
              neatly                          1
         permanently                          1
                 any                          2
                copy                          2
              floppy                          1
          dictionary                          1
       complimentary                          1
             ability                          4
            priority                          1
        productivity                          1
          difficulty                          1
dictation/transcript                          4



End of report.
```

SAMPLE TXTPRO WORD PROCESSING

TEXT ANALYSIS

DESCENDING WORD FREQUENCY ORDER

FREQ
WP6.IBM

```
                    TXTPRO Text Processing System

          Word-Frequency Summary for Text in File b:wp6.ibm

                    Descending Frequency Order

------------------------------------------------------------------------

    Text Item                               Frequency
```

Text Item	Frequency
.	79
the	76
to	43
and	37
;	36
,	33
:	30
unit	28
--	27
of	26
a	22
dictation	19
transcription	17
or	15
that	11
recording	11
is	11
for	11
be	11
used	10
in	10
which	9
equipment	8
words	7
media	7
material	7
magnetic	7
by	7
)	7
(	7
transcribe	6
skills	6
medium	6
listening	6
from	6
dictator	6
device	6
control	6
are	6
typewriter	5
transcriptionist	5
pedal	5
on	5
foot	5
each	5
discrete	5
at	5
use	4
transcribing	4
time	4
telephone	4
special	4
recorded	4
need	4
items	4
item	4
information	4
headset	4
following	4
etc	4
dictator's	4
dictation/transcript	4
ability	4
work	3
who	3

who	3
supplies	3
speed	3
s	3
removed	3
reference	3
play	3
placed	3
person	3
paper	3
organize	3
names	3
name	3
make	3
loop	3
lines	3
into	3
instructions	3
endless	3
either	3
dictating	3
dictated	3
dictate	3
determine	3
desk	3
correct	3
confusing	3
can	3
back	3
as	3
an	3
you	2
word	2
wire	2
will	2
volume	2
uses	2
typing	2
types	2
turn	2
transcript	2
transcribed	2
tone	2
these	2
then	2
techniques	2
tape	2
system	2
such	2
store	2
spelling	2
speak	2
sentences	2
saves	2
replay	2
removing	2
record	2
punctuation	2
proofread	2
private	2
prepare	2
plugged	2
playback	2
operator'	2
number	2
notes	2
note	2
notations	2

notes	2
note	2
notations	2
not	2
microphone	2
materials	2
manual	2
machine	2
logical	2
located	2
listen	2
length	2
it	2
indicate	2
include	2
i	2
group	2
format	2
errors	2
end	2
easier	2
e	2
do	2
disadvantages	2
devices	2
desk-top	2
dear	2
cover	2
copy	2
copies	2
connected	2
closing	2
card	2
carbon	2
being	2
before	2
area	2
any	2
advantages	2
adjust	2
according	2
	0
your	1
workload	1
with	1
when	1
whatever	1
voice	1
verify	1
verified	1
utensils	1
usage	1
up	1
units	1
understanding	1
understand	1
typist	1
typewritten	1
typewriting	1
typed	1
type	1
transcriptionist'	1
training	1
together	1
title	1
throughout	1
three	1
this	1

three	1
this	1
thinking	1
than	1
terms	1
tank	1
switch	1
subject	1
styles	1
stopping	1
stop	1
steps	1
start	1
spell	1
softness	1
so	1
smith	1
slur	1
slip	1
shorthand	1
set	1
sense	1
self-contained	1
see	1
secretarial	1
salutation	1
said	1
run	1
rhythm	1
resistance	1
required	1
repeated	1
remove	1
remember	1
references	1
refer	1
recall	1
rapidly	1
quotation	1
quickly	1
quickest	1
punctuate	1
properly	1
proper	1
productivity	1
produces	1
produced	1
produce	1
processed	1
process	1
procedures	1
priority	1
priorities	1
preview	1
prepared	1
precede	1
portable	1
points	1
plain	1
places	1
place	1
pitch	1
phrases	1
phrase	1
personnel	1
permanently	1
pay	1
paragraphs	1

pay	1
paragraphs	1
paperwork	1
pace	1
outside	1
outline	1
out	1
other	1
originates	1
order	1
operating	1
omitted	1
office	1
off	1
occur	1
no	1
needed	1
neatly	1
ms	1
money	1
method	1
message	1
mentally	1
memo	1
may	1
marks	1
margins	1
makes	1
mailing	1
mailable	1
loudness	1
longhand	1
letterhead	1
letter	1
later	1
last	1
language	1
john	1
indistinguishable	1
index	1
indents	1
increases	1
increase	1
includes	1
immediate	1
if	1
identifying	1
has	1
handling	1
handbook	1
hand-held	1
gets	1
gather	1
form	1
follow	1
floppy	1
first	1
find	1
final	1
filed	1
file	1
few	1
features	1
faster	1
even	1
envelopes	1
entered	1
enclosures	1

entered	1
enclosures	1
enclosed	1
enables	1
eliminate	1
electronic	1
effort	1
efficiency	1
editing	1
during	1
documents	1
document	1
division	1
distribute	1
discs	1
disc	1
directions	1
difficulty	1
dictionary	1
dictates	1
develop	1
depressing	1
definitions	1
decrease	1
day	1
cueing	1
correcting	1
controls	1
contact	1
consulting	1
consists	1
concentrate	1
complimentary	1
combination	1
closely	1
clearly	1
clear	1
clean	1
clarified	1
checked	1
check	1
centralized-recordin	1
categorized	1
cassettes	1
cassette	1
carefully	1
cards	1
capturing	1
capitalization	1
capabilities	1
both	1
books	1
book	1
body	1
between	1
better	1
beginning	1
been	1
available	1
automatically	1
attention	1
arts	1
arrange	1
approximate	1
appropriate	1
again	1
addresses	1
addressee	1

```
        again                                          1
        addresses                                      1
        addressee                                      1
        accurately                                     1
        accordingly                                    1
                                                       0


End of report.
```

SAMPLE
TXTPRO PC CONCORDANCE
ALPHABETIC

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```
                                 TXTPRO Text Processing System

                              Concordance for Input Text b:wp6.ibm

                                      Starting at Item #1

-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------


        . terms and definitions : dictation unit --   a              device into which information can be entered and
          from recorded dictation . transcription unit --   a              device used to play back recorded dictation for
unit -- three styles of desk-top units are available :   a              dictation unit , a transcription unit , a
    . dictator -- the person who originates paperwork ;   a              person who dictates copy for transcription into
[illegible] . discrete media equipment -- this equipment uses   a              recording medium which can be removed ( i . e . ,
  discrete media equipment . portable dictation unit --   a              self-contained , hand-held unit which enables the
   of desk-top units are available : a dictation unit ,   a              transcription unit , a combination unit with both
   can be removed from the dictation unit and placed in   a              transcription unit for play back or filed for
office at any time . the recording medium is placed in   a              transcription unit for the typist to transcribe .
         disc , magnetic card ) . transcribe -- to produce   a              typed document from recorded dictation .
     and transcription . logical thinking skills -- the   ability        to determine information that is needed or that
 material is to be transcribed . editing skills -- the   ability        to find and correct any errors that occur during .
```

disc , magnetic card) . transcribe -- to produce	a	typed document from recorded dictation .
and transcription . logical thinking skills -- the	ability	to determine information that is needed or that
material is to be transcribed . editing skills -- the	ability	to find and correct any errors that occur during
, etc . transcription skills : listening skills -- the	ability	to pay attention , concentrate , and understand
, and word usage . typewriting skills -- the	ability	to rapidly and accurately record on paper whatever
for each item to be prepared . transcribe the material	according	to priorities . proofread the transcript before
reference materials . organize materials to be dictated	according	to priority . use index slip or electronic cueing
l th of the dictation and set the typewriter margins	accordingly	. determine the correct format for each item to be
typewriting skills -- the ability to rapidly and	accurately	record on paper whatever material is to be
subject or reference notations ; salutation and name of	addressee	(dear john or dear ms . smith) ; body of
, etc . spell out proper names , confusing names ,	addresses	, etc . dictate in the following order : your name
speed of the dictation . tone control device -- used to	adjust	the pitch of the dictator's voice . recall switch
that need to be clarified ; special instructions .	adjust	the volume , speed , and tone controls . determine
disadvantages of dictation/transcription equipment :	advantages	: saves time and effort ; gets work processed
-- which are located at each dictator's desk .	advantages	and disadvantages of dictation/transcription
of words , then depressing the foot pedal and listening	again	. (note : these steps are repeated throughout the
. endless loop system -- dictation equipment which uses	an	endless loop of magnetic tape permanently enclosed
clearly . do not slur or run words together . speak at	an	even pace . dictate capitalization , punctuation ,
: organize for dictation : make notes . prepare	an	outline of points to cover . gather reference
machine transcription . terms	and	definitions : dictation unit -- a device into
which are located at each dictator's desk . advantages	and	disadvantages of dictation/transcription equipment
. discrete media can be removed from the dictation unit	and	placed in a transcription unit for play back or
desk . the medium is removed from the recording unit	and	placed in the transcription unit . transcription
unit -- a device into which information can be entered	and	recorded . dictator -- the person who originates
. volume control device -- used to control the loudness	and	softness of the dictation . foot pedal -- used to
softness of the dictation . foot pedal -- used to start	and	stop dictation and to replay the dictation .
. recording media -- magnetic supplies used to record	and	store information (i . e . , floppy disc ,
handling of the recording medium . the recording unit	and	the transcription unit are connected either by
. foot pedal -- used to start and stop dictation	and	to replay the dictation . headset -- used to
. editing skills -- the ability to find and correct	any	errors that occur during dictation and
the dictator to dictate material outside the office at	any	time . the recording medium is placed in a
the machine at the end of the day . store supplies in	appropriate	places .
the volume , speed , and tone controls . determine the	approximate	length of the dictation and set the typewriter
. desk-top unit -- three styles of desk-top units	are	available : a dictation unit , a transcription
a . the recording unit and the transcription unit	are	connected either by private wire or telephone
devices -- a microphone or a telephone -- which	are	located at each dictator's desk . advantages and
devices -- a microphone or a telephone -- which	are	located at each dictator's desk . the medium is
unit is plugged in and that the headset and foot pedal	are	plugged in . place the recording medium in the
foot pedal and listening again . (note : these steps	are	repeated throughout the transcription process .)
removing it from the typewriter . clean up the work	area	: turn off the transcription unit and typewriter .
typewriter . transcribing procedures : organize work	area	and arrange material neatly on the desk . you will
. transcribing procedures : organize work area and	arrange	material neatly on the desk . you will need the
, and understand that which is being said . language	arts	skills -- these include spelling , punctuation ,
(letter , memo , etc .) ; instructions , such	as	: format , number of copies , mailing notations ;
paper ; correcting utensils ; reference books , such	as	: secretarial handbook ; operator ' s manual for
throughout the transcription process .) correct errors	as	you transcribe so a mailable copy will be produced
clearly . do not slur or run words together . speak	at	an even pace . dictate capitalization ,
the dictator to dictate material outside the office	at	any time . the recording medium is placed in a
-- a microphone or a telephone -- which are located	at	each dictator's desk . advantages and
-- a microphone or a telephone -- which are located	at	each dictator's desk . the medium is removed from
recording medium and file properly . cover the machine	at	the end of the day . store supplies in appropriate
skills : listening skills -- the ability to pay	attention	, concentrate , and understand that which is being
of the dictator's voice . recall switch -- used to	automatically	replay the last few words of the dictation .
. desk-top unit -- three styles of desk-top units are	available	: a dictation unit , a transcription unit , a
unit -- used by the transcriptionist to play	back	material for typing . each unit consists of a :
unit and placed in a transcription unit for play	back	or filed for later use . types of discrete media
dictation . transcription unit -- a device used to play	back	recorded dictation for transcribing .
on the following items : spelling of words that need to	be	checked ; names that need to be verified ;
to be verified ; indistinguishable words that need to	be	clarified ; special instructions . adjust the
. gather reference materials . organize materials to	be	dictated according to priority . use index slip or
: tation unit -- a device into which information can	be	entered and recorded . dictator -- the person who
. determine the correct format for each item to	be	prepared . transcribe the material according to
errors as you transcribe so a mailable copy will	be	produced . verify confusing items by : listening
-- this equipment uses a recording medium which can	be	removed (i . e . , magnetic card , cassette) .
. e . , magnetic card , cassette) . discrete media can	be	removed from the dictation unit and placed in a
and accurately record on paper whatever material is to	be	transcribed . editing skills -- the ability to
. preview the dictation . listen to the first item to	be	transcribed from beginning to end . mentally
of words that need to be checked ; names that need to	be	verified ; indistinguishable words that need to be

. preview the dictation . listen to the first item to	be	transcribed from beginning to end . mentally
of words that need to be checked ; names that need to	be	verified ; indistinguishable words that need to be
to determine information that is needed or that has	been	omitted , and if the message is clear and logical
according to priorities . proofread the transcript	before	removing it from the typewriter . clean up the
the dictator . proofread the transcript carefully	before	removing it from the typewriter . transcribing
. listen to the first item to be transcribed from	beginning	to end . mentally punctuate the material . make
order : your name or identifying number ; the item	being	dictated (letter , memo , etc .) ; instructions
attention , concentrate , and understand that which is	being	said . language arts skills -- these include
[illegible]y ; increases productivity and efficiency ; makes	better	use of the dictator and transcriptionist ' s time ;
of personnel to use equipment ; no immediate contact	between	dictator and transcriptionist difficulty in
name of addressee (dear john or dear ms . smith) ;	body	of material ; closing lines : complimentary
s manual for transcription unit ; word division	book	; dictionary ; other special references . prepare
; carbon paper ; correcting utensils ; reference	books	, such as : secretarial handbook ; operator ' s
unit , a transcription unit , a combination unit with	both	dictation/transcription capabilities .
mailable copy will be produced . verify confusing items	by	: listening closely to the phrases or sentences
transcribing techniques : develop a transcribing rhythm	by	: listening to a group of words or a phrase , then
system -- the recording unit is connected either	by	private wire or by telephone lines to the
unit and the transcription unit are connected either	by	private wire or telephone lines to the dictating
recording unit is connected either by private wire or	by	telephone lines to the dictating devices -- a
in the transcription unit . transcription unit -- used	by	the transcriptionist to play back material for
: dictation/transcription equipment is categorized	by	the type of recording media used , either discrete
: dictation unit -- a device into which information	can	be entered and recorded . dictator -- the person
-- this equipment uses a recording medium which	can	be removed (i . e . , magnetic card , cassette)
(i . e . , magnetic card , cassette) . discrete media	can	be removed from the dictation unit and placed in a
, a combination unit with both dictation/transcription	capabilities	. centralized-recording system -- the recording
or run words together . speak at an even pace . dictate	capitalization	, punctuation , paragraphs , indents , quotation
transcriptionist ' s time ; is the quickest method of	capturing	information ; is faster and easier to transcribe
: complimentary closing ; dictator's name and title ;	carbon	copies , enclosures , etc . transcription skills :
may include : letterhead ; plain paper ; envelopes ;	carbon	paper ; correcting utensils ; reference books ,
store information (i . e . , floppy disc , magnetic	card	) . transcribe -- to produce a typed document from
medium which can be removed (i . e . , magnetic	card	, cassette) . discrete media can be removed from
to dictation . types of discrete media : magnetic	cards	; magnetic tape cassettes ; magnetic discs .
. consulting the dictator . proofread the transcript	carefully	before removing it from the typewriter .
medium which can be removed (i . e . , magnetic card ,	cassette	) . discrete media can be removed from the
of discrete media : magnetic cards ; magnetic tape	cassettes	; magnetic discs . endless loop system --
equipment : dictation/transcription equipment is	categorized	by the type of recording media used , either
unit with both dictation/transcription capabilities .	centralized-recordin	system -- the recording unit is connected either
s manual for directions on operating the unit .)	check	to see that the unit is plugged in and that the
the following items : spelling of words that need to be	checked	; names that need to be verified ;
be verified ; indistinguishable words that need to be	clarified	; special instructions . adjust the volume , speed
the transcript before removing it from the typewriter .	clean	up the work area : turn off the transcription unit
needed or that has been omitted , and if the message is	clear	and logical . transcribing techniques : develop a
. remember the following when dictating : speak	clearly	. do not slur or run words together . speak at an
be produced . verify confusing items by : listening	closely	to the phrases or sentences that do not make sense
) ; body of material ; closing lines : complimentary	closing	; dictator's name and title ; carbon copies ,
(dear john or dear ms . smith) ; body of material ;	closing	lines : complimentary closing ; dictator's name
available : a dictation unit , a transcription unit , a	combination	unit with both dictation/transcription
dear ms . smith) ; body of material ; closing lines :	complimentary	closing ; dictator's name and title ; carbon
: listening skills -- the ability to pay attention ,	concentrate	, and understand that which is being said .
listening to the sentences that precede and follow the	confusing	items . consulting the dictator . proofread the
transcribe so a mailable copy will be produced . verify	confusing	items by : listening closely to the phrases or
, quotation marks , etc . spell out proper names ,	confusing	names , addresses , etc . dictate in the following
. centralized-recording system -- the recording unit is	connected	either by private wire or by telephone lines to
. the recording unit and the transcription unit are	connected	either by private wire or telephone lines to the
to play back material for typing . each unit	consists	of a : listening device (headset) ; foot pedal
sentences that precede and follow the confusing items .	consulting	the dictator . proofread the transcript carefully
resistance of personnel to use equipment ; no immediate	contact	between dictator and transcriptionist difficulty
which includes : playback unit ; headset ; foot pedal	control	. typewriter and supplies which may include :
of a : listening device (headset) ; foot pedal	control	; playback unit . special features of a
increase or decrease the speed of the dictation . tone	control	device -- used to adjust the pitch of the
[illegible]play the last few words of the dictation . volume	control	device -- used to control the loudness and
unit . special features of a transcription unit : speed	control	device -- used to increase or decrease the speed
of the dictation . volume control device -- used to	control	the loudness and softness of the dictation . foot
instructions . adjust the volume , speed , and tone	controls	. determine the approximate length of the
closing ; dictator's name and title ; carbon	copies	, enclosures , etc . transcription skills :
, etc .) ; instructions , such as : format , number of	copies	, mailing notations ; subject or reference
person who originates paperwork ; a person who dictates	copy	for transcription into final documents . recording
.) correct errors as you transcribe so a mailable	copy	will be produced . verify confusing items by :

person who originates paperwork ; a person who dictates	copy	for transcription into final documents . recording
.) correct errors as you transcribe so a mailable	copy	will be produced . verify confusing items by :
transcribed . editing skills -- the ability to find and	correct	any errors that occur during dictation and
are repeated throughout the transcription process .)	correct	errors as you transcribe so a mailable copy will
set the typewriter margins accordingly . determine the	correct	format for each item to be prepared . transcribe
: letterhead ; plain paper ; envelopes ; carbon paper ;	correcting	utensils ; reference books , such as : secretarial
: make notes . prepare an outline of points to	cover	. gather reference materials . organize materials
remove the recording medium and file properly .	cover	the machine at the end of the day . store supplies
according to priority . use index slip or electronic	cueing	to : indicate special instructions . indicate
and file properly . cover the machine at the end of the	day	. store supplies in appropriate places .
notations ; salutation and name of addressee (	dear	john or dear ms . smith) ; body of material ;
; salutation and name of addressee (dear john or	dear	ms . smith) ; body of material ; closing lines :
unit : speed control device -- used to increase or	decrease	the speed of the dictation . tone control device
machine transcription . terms and	definitions	: dictation unit -- a device into which
the recording and typing the group of words , then	depressing	the foot pedal and listening again . (note :
or a telephone -- which are located at each dictator's	desk	. advantages and disadvantages of
or a telephone -- which are located at each dictator's	desk	. the medium is removed from the recording unit
: organize work area and arrange material neatly on the	desk	. you will need the following items :
in a transcription unit for the typist to transcribe .	desk-top	unit -- three styles of desk-top units are
typist to transcribe . desk-top unit -- three styles of	desk-top	units are available : a dictation unit , a
. logical thinking skills -- the ability to	determine	information that is needed or that has been
. adjust the volume , speed , and tone controls .	determine	the approximate length of the dictation and set
dictation and set the typewriter margins accordingly .	determine	the correct format for each item to be prepared .
is clear and logical . transcribing techniques :	develop	a transcribing rhythm by : listening to a group of
for typing . each unit consists of a : listening	device	(headset) ; foot pedal control ; playback unit .
or decrease the speed of the dictation . tone control	device	-- used to adjust the pitch of the dictator's
the last few words of the dictation . volume control	device	-- used to control the loudness and softness of
features of a transcription unit : speed control	device	-- used to increase or decrease the speed of the
. terms and definitions : dictation unit -- a	device	into which information can be entered and recorded
from recorded dictation . transcription unit -- a	device	used to play back recorded dictation for
by private wire or by telephone lines to the dictating	devices	-- a microphone or a telephone -- which are
by private wire or telephone lines to the dictating	devices	-- a microphone or a telephone -- which are
r or run words together . speak at an even pace .	dictate	capitalization , punctuation , paragraphs ,
roper names , confusing names , addresses , etc .	dictate	in the following order : your name or identifying
, hand-held unit which enables the dictator to	dictate	material outside the office at any time . the
: your name or identifying number ; the item being	dictated	(letter , memo , etc .) ; instructions , such as
special instructions . indicate length of each item	dictated	. remember the following when dictating : speak
. gather reference materials . organize materials to be	dictated	according to priority . use index slip or
-- the person who originates paperwork ; a person who	dictates	copy for transcription into final documents .
of each item dictated . remember the following when	dictating	: speak clearly . do not slur or run words
either by private wire or by telephone lines to the	dictating	devices -- a microphone or a telephone -- which
either by private wire or telephone lines to the	dictating	devices -- a microphone or a telephone -- which
difficulty in transcriptionist understanding the	dictation	. dictation techniques : organize for dictation :
-- used to control the loudness and softness of the	dictation	. foot pedal -- used to start and stop dictation
-- used to start and stop dictation and to replay the	dictation	. headset -- used to listen to dictation . types
the transcription unit . turn the unit on . preview the	dictation	. listen to the first item to be transcribed from
device -- used to increase or decrease the speed of the	dictation	. tone control device -- used to adjust the pitch
transcribe -- to produce a typed document from recorded	dictation	. transcription unit -- a device used to play back
to replay the dictation . headset -- used to listen to	dictation	. types of discrete media : magnetic cards ;
used to automatically replay the last few words of the	dictation	. volume control device -- used to control the
the dictation . dictation techniques : organize for	dictation	: make notes . prepare an outline of points to
tone controls . determine the approximate length of the	dictation	and set the typewriter margins accordingly .
of the dictation . foot pedal -- used to start and stop	dictation	and to replay the dictation . headset -- used to
to find and correct any errors that occur during	dictation	and transcription . logical thinking skills -- the
cassettes ; magnetic discs . endless loop system --	dictation	equipment which uses an endless loop of magnetic
unit -- a device used to play back recorded	dictation	for transcribing . transcriptionist -- the person
in transcriptionist understanding the dictation .	dictation	techniques : organize for dictation : make notes .
-- three styles of desk-top units are available : a	dictation	unit , a transcription unit , a combination unit
machine transcription . terms and definitions :	dictation	unit -- a device into which information can be
ee . types of discrete media equipment . portable	dictation	unit -- a self-contained , hand-held unit which
, cassette) . discrete media can be removed from the	dictation	unit and placed in a transcription unit for play
, a transcription unit , a combination unit with both	dictation/transcript	capabilities . centralized-recording system -- the
each dictator's desk . advantages and disadvantages of	dictation/transcript	equipment : advantages : saves time and effort ;
who produces recorded words into typewritten form .	dictation/transcript	equipment : dictation/transcription equipment is
typewritten form . dictation/transcription equipment :	dictation/transcript	equipment is categorized by the type of recording
into which information can be entered and recorded .	dictator	-- the person who originates paperwork ; a person
precede and follow the confusing items . consulting the	dictator	. proofread the transcript carefully before

precede and follow the confusing items . consulting the	dictator	. proofread the transcript carefully before
. disadvantages : training time required for the	dictator	and transcriptionist ; resistance of personnel to
to use equipment ; no immediate contact between	dictator	and transcriptionist difficulty in
productivity and efficiency ; makes better use of the	dictator	and transcriptionist ' s time ; is the quickest
-- a self-contained , hand-held unit which enables the	dictator	to dictate material outside the office at any time
microphone or a telephone -- which are located at each	dictator's	desk . advantages and disadvantages of
microphone or a telephone -- which are located at each	dictator's	desk . the medium is removed from the recording
[illegible]aterial ; closing lines : complimentary closing ;	dictator's	name and title ; carbon copies , enclosures , etc
tone control device -- used to adjust the pitch of the	dictator's	voice . recall switch -- used to automatically
s manual for transcription unit ; word division book ;	dictionary	; other special references . prepare to transcribe
immediate contact between dictator and transcriptionist	difficulty	in transcriptionist understanding the dictation .
: (note : refer to the operator ' s manual for	directions	on operating the unit .) check to see that the
and shorthand ; easier to distribute workload .	disadvantages	: training time required for the dictator and
are located at each dictator's desk . advantages and	disadvantages	of dictation/transcription equipment : advantages
used to record and store information (i . e . , floppy	disc	, magnetic card) . transcribe -- to produce a
. headset -- used to listen to dictation . types of	discrete	media : magnetic cards ; magnetic tape cassettes ;
can be removed (i . e . , magnetic card , cassette) .	discrete	media can be removed from the dictation unit and
media used , either discrete or endless loop media .	discrete	media equipment -- this equipment uses a recording
unit for play back or filed for later use . types of	discrete	media equipment . portable dictation unit -- a
by the type of recording media used , either	discrete	or endless loop media . discrete media equipment
: magnetic cards ; magnetic tape cassettes ; magnetic	discs	. endless loop system -- dictation equipment which
to transcribe than longhand and shorthand ; easier to	distribute	workload . disadvantages : training time required
; operator ' s manual for transcription unit ; word	division	book ; dictionary ; other special references .
by : listening closely to the phrases or sentences that	do	not make sense . listening to the sentences that
remember the following when dictating : speak clearly .	do	not slur or run words together . speak at an even
, magnetic card) . transcribe -- to produce a typed	document	from recorded dictation . transcription unit -- a
a person who dictates copy for transcription into final	documents	. recording media -- magnetic supplies used to
the ability to find and correct any errors that occur	during	dictation and transcription . logical thinking
supplies used to record and store information (i .	e	. , floppy disc , magnetic card) . transcribe --
uses a recording medium which can be removed (i .	e	. , magnetic card , cassette) . discrete media
-- a microphone or a telephone -- which are located at	each	dictator's desk . advantages and disadvantages of
-- a microphone or a telephone -- which are located at	each	dictator's desk . the medium is removed from the
to : indicate special instructions . indicate length of	each	item dictated . remember the following when
[illegible]ns accordingly . determine the correct format for	each	item to be prepared . transcribe the material
the transcriptionist to play back material for typing .	each	unit consists of a : listening device (headset)
and easier to transcribe than longhand and shorthand ;	easier	to distribute workload . disadvantages : training
method of capturing information ; is faster and	easier	to transcribe than longhand and shorthand ; easier
on paper whatever material is to be transcribed .	editing	skills -- the ability to find and correct any
quickly ; saves money ; increases productivity and	efficiency	; makes better use of the dictator and
equipment : advantages : saves time and	effort	; gets work processed quickly ; saves money ;
system -- the recording unit is connected	either	by private wire or by telephone lines to the
recording unit and the transcription unit are connected	either	by private wire or telephone lines to the
is categorized by the type of recording media used ,	either	discrete or endless loop media . discrete media
be dictated according to priority . use index slip or	electronic	cueing to : indicate special instructions .
loop of magnetic tape permanently enclosed in a tank to	eliminate	handling of the recording medium . the recording
unit -- a self-contained , hand-held unit which	enables	the dictator to dictate material outside the
which uses an endless loop of magnetic tape permanently	enclosed	in a tank to eliminate handling of the recording
closing ; dictator's name and title ; carbon copies ,	enclosures	, etc . transcription skills : listening skills --
to the first item to be transcribed from beginning to	end	. mentally punctuate the material . make notes on
medium and file properly . cover the machine at the	end	of the day . store supplies in appropriate places
the type of recording media used , either discrete or	endless	loop media . discrete media equipment -- this
loop system -- dictation equipment which uses an	endless	loop of magnetic tape permanently enclosed in a
cards ; magnetic tape cassettes ; magnetic discs .	endless	loop system -- dictation equipment which uses an
unit -- a device into which information can be	entered	and recorded . dictator -- the person who
supplies which may include : letterhead ; plain paper ;	envelopes	; carbon paper ; correcting utensils ; reference
either discrete or endless loop media . discrete media	equipment	-- this equipment uses a recording medium which
back or filed for later use . types of discrete media	equipment	. portable dictation unit -- a self-contained ,
advantages and disadvantages of dictation/transcription	equipment	: advantages : saves time and effort ; gets work
words into typewritten form . dictation/transcription	equipment	: dictation/transcription equipment is categorized
[illegible]transcriptionist ; resistance of personnel to use	equipment	; no immediate contact between dictator and
equipment : dictation/transcription	equipment	is categorized by the type of recording media used
endless loop media . discrete media equipment -- this	equipment	uses a recording medium which can be removed (i .
; magnetic discs . endless loop system -- dictation	equipment	which uses an endless loop of magnetic tape
throughout the transcription process .) correct	errors	as you transcribe so a mailable copy will be
. editing skills -- the ability to find and correct any	errors	that occur during dictation and transcription .
number ; the item being dictated (letter , memo ,	etc	.) ; instructions , such as : format , number of
spell out proper names , confusing names , addresses ,	etc	. dictate in the following order : your name or
punctuation , paragraphs , indents , quotation marks	etc	spell out proper names , confusing names

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spell out proper names , confusing names , addresses ,	etc	. dictate in the following order : your name or
punctuation , paragraphs , indents , quotation marks ,	etc	. spell out proper names , confusing names ,
name and title ; carbon copies , enclosures ,	etc	. transcription skills : listening skills -- the
. do not slur or run words together . speak at an	even	pace . dictate capitalization , punctuation ,
; is the quickest method of capturing information ; is	faster	and easier to transcribe than longhand and
) ; foot pedal control ; playback unit . special	features	of a transcription unit : speed control device --
recall switch -- used to automatically replay the last	few	words of the dictation . volume control device --
and typewriter . remove the recording medium and	file	properly . cover the machine at the end of the day
and placed in a transcription unit for play back or	filed	for later use . types of discrete media equipment
; a person who dictates copy for transcription into	final	documents . recording media -- magnetic supplies
is to be transcribed . editing skills -- the ability to	find	and correct any errors that occur during dictation
the unit on . preview the dictation . listen to the	first	item to be transcribed from beginning to end .
used to record and store information (i . e . ,	floppy	disc , magnetic card) . transcribe -- to produce
sense . listening to the sentences that precede and	follow	the confusing items . consulting the dictator .
. mentally punctuate the material . make notes on the	following	items : spelling of words that need to be checked
arrange material neatly on the desk . you will need the	following	items : transcription unit which includes :
, confusing names , addresses , etc . dictate in the	following	order : your name or identifying number ; the item
. indicate length of each item dictated . remember the	following	when dictating : speak clearly . do not slur or
to control the loudness and softness of the dictation .	foot	pedal -- used to start and stop dictation and to
and typing the group of words , then depressing the	foot	pedal and listening again . (note : these steps
that the unit is plugged in and that the headset and	foot	pedal are plugged in . place the recording medium
unit which includes : playback unit ; headset ;	foot	pedal control . typewriter and supplies which may
unit consists of a : listening device (headset) ;	foot	pedal control ; playback unit . special features
the dictation . dictation techniques : organize	for	dictation : make notes . prepare an outline of
transcribe : (note : refer to the operator' s manual	for	directions on operating the unit .) check to see
placed in a transcription unit for play back or filed	for	later use . types of discrete media equipment .
the dictation unit and placed in a transcription unit	for	play back or filed for later use . types of
workload . disadvantages : training time required	for	the dictator and transcriptionist ; resistance of
the recording medium is placed in a transcription unit	for	the typist to transcribe . desk-top unit -- three
unit -- a device used to play back recorded dictation	for	transcribing . transcriptionist -- the person who
who originates paperwork ; a person who dictates copy	for	transcription into final documents . recording
, such as : secretarial handbook ; operator' s manual	for	transcription unit ; word division book ;
-- used by the transcriptionist to play back material	for	typing . each unit consists of a : listening
t erson who produces recorded words into typewritten	form	. dictation/transcription equipment :
(letter , memo , etc .) ; instructions , such as :	format	, number of copies , mailing notations ; subject
typewriter margins accordingly . determine the correct	format	for each item to be prepared . transcribe the
dictation . listen to the first item to be transcribed	from	beginning to end . mentally punctuate the material
card) . transcribe -- to produce a typed document	from	recorded dictation . transcription unit -- a
card , cassette) . discrete media can be removed	from	the dictation unit and placed in a transcription
located at each dictator's desk . the medium is removed	from	the recording unit and placed in the transcription
. proofread the transcript before removing it	from	the typewriter . clean up the work area : turn off
. proofread the transcript carefully before removing it	from	the typewriter . transcribing procedures :
: make notes . prepare an outline of points to cover .	gather	reference materials . organize materials to be
equipment : advantages : saves time and effort ;	gets	work processed quickly ; saves money ; increases
a phrase , then stopping the recording and typing the	group	of words , then depressing the foot pedal and
: develop a transcribing rhythm by : listening to a	group	of words or a phrase , then stopping the recording
. portable dictation unit -- a self-contained ,	hand-held	unit which enables the dictator to dictate
utensils ; reference books , such as : secretarial	handbook	; operator' s manual for transcription unit ; word
tape permanently enclosed in a tank to eliminate	handling	of the recording medium . the recording unit and
ability to determine information that is needed or that	has	been omitted , and if the message is clear and
typing . each unit consists of a : listening device (	headset	) ; foot pedal control ; playback unit . special
start and stop dictation and to replay the dictation .	headset	-- used to listen to dictation . types of discrete
: transcription unit which includes : playback unit ;	headset	; foot pedal control . typewriter and supplies
) check to see that the unit is plugged in and that the	headset	and foot pedal are plugged in . place the
supplies used to record and store information (	i	. e . , floppy disc , magnetic card) . transcribe
uses a recording medium which can be removed (	i	. e . , magnetic card , cassette) . discrete
, etc . dictate in the following order : your name or	identifying	number ; the item being dictated (letter , memo ,
that is needed or that has been omitted , and	if	the message is clear and logical . transcribing
; resistance of personnel to use equipment ; no	immediate	contact between dictator and transcriptionist
n and that the headset and foot pedal are plugged	in	. place the recording medium in the transcription
a ndless loop of magnetic tape permanently enclosed	in	a tank to eliminate handling of the recording
media can be removed from the dictation unit and placed	in	a transcription unit for play back or filed for
the office at any time . the recording medium is placed	in	a transcription unit for the typist to transcribe
the unit .) check to see that the unit is plugged	in	and that the headset and foot pedal are plugged in
the machine at the end of the day . store supplies	in	appropriate places .
names , confusing names , addresses , etc . dictate	in	the following order : your name or identifying
medium is removed from the recording unit and placed	in	the transcription unit . transcription unit --
foot pedal are plugged in . place the recording medium	in	the transcription unit . turn the unit on .

names , confusing names , addresses , etc . dictate	in	the following order : your name or identifying
medium is removed from the recording unit and placed	in	the transcription unit . transcription unit --
foot pedal are plugged in . place the recording medium	in	the transcription unit . turn the unit on .
between dictator and transcriptionist difficulty	in	transcriptionist understanding the dictation .
foot pedal control . typewriter and supplies which may	include	: letterhead ; plain paper ; envelopes ; carbon
which is being said . language arts skills -- these	include	spelling , punctuation , and word usage .
need the following items : transcription unit which	includes	: playback unit ; headset ; foot pedal control .
a [illegible]nscription unit : speed control device -- used to	increase	or decrease the speed of the dictation . tone
effort ; gets work processed quickly ; saves money ;	increases	productivity and efficiency ; makes better use of
. dictate capitalization , punctuation , paragraphs ,	indents	, quotation marks , etc . spell out proper names ,
materials to be dictated according to priority . use	index	slip or electronic cueing to : indicate special
electronic cueing to : indicate special instructions .	indicate	length of each item dictated . remember the
to priority . use index slip or electronic cueing to :	indicate	special instructions . indicate length of each
need to be checked ; names that need to be verified ;	indistinguishable	words that need to be clarified ; special
media -- magnetic supplies used to record and store	information	(i . e . , floppy disc , magnetic card) .
s time ; is the quickest method of capturing	information	; is faster and easier to transcribe than longhand
and definitions : dictation unit -- a device into which	information	can be entered and recorded . dictator -- the
. logical thinking skills -- the ability to determine	information	that is needed or that has been omitted , and if
; the item being dictated (letter , memo , etc .) ;	instructions	, such as : format , number of copies , mailing
words that need to be clarified ; special	instructions	. adjust the volume , speed , and tone controls .
index slip or electronic cueing to : indicate special	instructions	. indicate length of each item dictated . remember
; a person who dictates copy for transcription	into	final documents . recording media -- magnetic
-- the person who produces recorded words	into	typewritten form . dictation/transcription
. terms and definitions : dictation unit -- a device	into	which information can be entered and recorded .
pay attention , concentrate , and understand that which	is	being said . language arts skills -- these include
equipment : dictation/transcription equipment	is	categorized by the type of recording media used ,
is needed or that has been omitted , and if the message	is	clear and logical . transcribing techniques :
. centralized-recording system -- the recording unit	is	connected either by private wire or by telephone
; is the quickest method of capturing information ;	is	faster and easier to transcribe than longhand and
skills -- the ability to determine information that	is	needed or that has been omitted , and if the
outside the office at any time . the recording medium	is	placed in a transcription unit for the typist to
on operating the unit .) check to see that the unit	is	plugged in and that the headset and foot pedal are
which are located at each dictator's desk . the medium	is	removed from the recording unit and placed in the
[illegible]se of the dictator and transcriptionist' s time ;	is	the quickest method of capturing information ; is
[illegible] and accurately record on paper whatever material	is	to be transcribed . editing skills -- the ability
priorities . proofread the transcript before removing	it	from the typewriter . clean up the work area :
. proofread the transcript carefully before removing	it	from the typewriter . transcribing procedures :
following order : your name or identifying number ; the	item	being dictated (letter , memo , etc .) ;
indicate special instructions . indicate length of each	item	dictated . remember the following when dictating :
accordingly . determine the correct format for each	item	to be prepared . transcribe the material according
unit on . preview the dictation . listen to the first	item	to be transcribed from beginning to end . mentally
to the sentences that precede and follow the confusing	items	. consulting the dictator . proofread the
punctuate the material . make notes on the following	items	: spelling of words that need to be checked ;
neatly on the desk . you will need the following	items	: transcription unit which includes : playback
so a mailable copy will be produced . verify confusing	items	by : listening closely to the phrases or sentences
notations ; salutation and name of addressee (dear	john	or dear ms . smith) ; body of material ; closing
concentrate , and understand that which is being said .	language	arts skills -- these include spelling ,
. recall switch -- used to automatically replay the	last	few words of the dictation . volume control device
in a transcription unit for play back or filed for	later	use . types of discrete media equipment . portable
cueing to : indicate special instructions . indicate	length	of each item dictated . remember the following
, speed , and tone controls . determine the approximate	length	of the dictation and set the typewriter margins
name or identifying number ; the item being dictated (	letter	, memo , etc .) ; instructions , such as : format
control . typewriter and supplies which may include :	letterhead	; plain paper ; envelopes ; carbon paper ;
john or dear ms . smith) ; body of material ; closing	lines	: complimentary closing ; dictator's name and
is connected either by private wire or by telephone	lines	to the dictating devices -- a microphone or a
unit are connected either by private wire or telephone	lines	to the dictating devices -- a microphone or a
and to replay the dictation . headset -- used to	listen	to dictation . types of discrete media : magnetic
unit . turn the unit on . preview the dictation .	listen	to the first item to be transcribed from beginning
the group of words , then depressing the foot pedal and	listening	again . (note : these steps are repeated
[illegible]py will be produced . verify confusing items by :	listening	closely to the phrases or sentences that do not
back material for typing . each unit consists of a :	listening	device (headset) ; foot pedal control ; playback
copies , enclosures , etc . transcription skills :	listening	skills -- the ability to pay attention ,
techniques : develop a transcribing rhythm by :	listening	to a group of words or a phrase , then stopping
to the phrases or sentences that do not make sense .	listening	to the sentences that precede and follow the
devices -- a microphone or a telephone -- which are	located	at each dictator's desk . advantages and
devices -- a microphone or a telephone -- which are	located	at each dictator's desk . the medium is removed
that has been omitted , and if the message is clear and	logical	. transcribing techniques : develop a transcribing

that has been omitted , and if the message is clear and	logical	. transcribing techniques : develop a transcribing
errors that occur during dictation and transcription .	logical	thinking skills -- the ability to determine
information ; is faster and easier to transcribe than	longhand	and shorthand ; easier to distribute workload .
of recording media used , either discrete or endless	loop	media . discrete media equipment -- this equipment
system -- dictation equipment which uses an endless	loop	of magnetic tape permanently enclosed in a tank to
; magnetic tape cassettes ; magnetic discs . endless	loop	system -- dictation equipment which uses an
. volume control device -- used to control the	loudness	and softness of the dictation . foot pedal -- used
the recording medium and file properly . cover the	machine	at the end of the day . store supplies in
	machine	transcription . terms and definitions : dictation
record and store information (i . e . , floppy disc ,	magnetic	card) . transcribe -- to produce a typed document
a recording medium which can be removed (i . e . ,	magnetic	card , cassette) . discrete media can be removed
used to listen to dictation . types of discrete media :	magnetic	cards ; magnetic tape cassettes ; magnetic discs .
media : magnetic cards ; magnetic tape cassettes ;	magnetic	discs . endless loop system -- dictation equipment
transcription into final documents . recording media --	magnetic	supplies used to record and store information (i
dictation . types of discrete media : magnetic cards ;	magnetic	tape cassettes ; magnetic discs . endless loop
-- dictation equipment which uses an endless loop of	magnetic	tape permanently enclosed in a tank to eliminate
process .) correct errors as you transcribe so a	mailable	copy will be produced . verify confusing items by
; instructions , such as : format , number of copies ,	mailing	notations ; subject or reference notations ;
. dictation techniques : organize for dictation :	make	notes . prepare an outline of points to cover .
beginning to end . mentally punctuate the material .	make	notes on the following items : spelling of words
closely to the phrases or sentences that do not	make	sense . listening to the sentences that precede
; saves money ; increases productivity and efficiency ;	makes	better use of the dictator and transcriptionist' s
to transcribe : (note : refer to the operator' s	manual	for directions on operating the unit .) check to
books , such as : secretarial handbook ; operator' s	manual	for transcription unit ; word division book ;
length of the dictation and set the typewriter	margins	accordingly . determine the correct format for
, punctuation , paragraphs , indents , quotation	marks	, etc . spell out proper names , confusing names ,
from beginning to end . mentally punctuate the	material	. make notes on the following items : spelling of
of addressee (dear john or dear ms . smith) ; body of	material	; closing lines : complimentary closing ;
format for each item to be prepared . transcribe the	material	according to priorities . proofread the transcript
unit -- used by the transcriptionist to play back	material	for typing . each unit consists of a : listening
to rapidly and accurately record on paper whatever	material	is to be transcribed . editing skills -- the
procedures : organize work area and arrange	material	neatly on the desk . you will need the following
d-held unit which enables the dictator to dictate	material	outside the office at any time . the recording
an outline of points to cover . gather reference	materials	. organize materials to be dictated according to
points to cover . gather reference materials . organize	materials	to be dictated according to priority . use index
; foot pedal control . typewriter and supplies which	may	include : letterhead ; plain paper ; envelopes ;
copy for transcription into final documents . recording	media	-- magnetic supplies used to record and store
recording media used , either discrete or endless loop	media	. discrete media equipment -- this equipment uses
-- used to listen to dictation . types of discrete	media	: magnetic cards ; magnetic tape cassettes ;
(i . e . , magnetic card , cassette) . discrete	media	can be removed from the dictation unit and placed
used , either discrete or endless loop media . discrete	media	equipment -- this equipment uses a recording
play back or filed for later use . types of discrete	media	equipment . portable dictation unit -- a
equipment is categorized by the type of recording	media	used , either discrete or endless loop media .
in a tank to eliminate handling of the recording	medium	. the recording unit and the transcription unit
unit and typewriter . remove the recording	medium	and file properly . cover the machine at the end
and foot pedal are plugged in . place the recording	medium	in the transcription unit . turn the unit on .
material outside the office at any time . the recording	medium	is placed in a transcription unit for the typist
-- which are located at each dictator's desk . the	medium	is removed from the recording unit and placed in
media equipment -- this equipment uses a recording	medium	which can be removed (i . e . , magnetic card ,
identifying number ; the item being dictated (letter ,	memo	, etc .) ; instructions , such as : format ,
first item to be transcribed from beginning to end .	mentally	punctuate the material . make notes on the
that is needed or that has been omitted , and if the	message	is clear and logical . transcribing techniques :
dictator and transcriptionist' s time ; is the quickest	method	of capturing information ; is faster and easier to
or by telephone lines to the dictating devices -- a	microphone	or a telephone -- which are located at each
wire or telephone lines to the dictating devices -- a	microphone	or a telephone -- which are located at each
time and effort ; gets work processed quickly ; saves	money	; increases productivity and efficiency ; makes
; salutation and name of addressee (dear john or dear	ms	. smith) ; body of material ; closing lines :
; closing lines : complimentary closing ; dictator's	name	and title ; carbon copies , enclosures , etc .
; subject or reference notations ; salutation and	name	of addressee (dear john or dear ms . smith) ;
a sses , etc . dictate in the following order : your	name	or identifying number ; the item being dictated (
marks , etc . spell out proper names , confusing	names	, addresses , etc . dictate in the following order
, indents , quotation marks , etc . spell out proper	names	, confusing names , addresses , etc . dictate in
items : spelling of words that need to be checked ;	names	that need to be verified ; indistinguishable words
procedures : organize work area and arrange material	neatly	on the desk . you will need the following items :
area and arrange material neatly on the desk . you will	need	the following items : transcription unit which
notes on the following items : spelling of words that	need	to be checked ; names that need to be verified ;
that need to be verified ; indistinguishable words that	need	to be clarified ; special instructions . adjust

area and arrange material neatly on the desk . you will	need	the following items : transcription unit which
notes on the following items : spelling of words that	need	to be checked ; names that need to be verified ;
that need to be verified ; indistinguishable words that	need	to be clarified ; special instructions . adjust
spelling of words that need to be checked ; names that	need	to be verified ; indistinguishable words that need
skills -- the ability to determine information that is	needed	or that has been omitted , and if the message is
; resistance of personnel to use equipment ;	no	immediate contact between dictator and
: listening closely to the phrases or sentences that do	not	make sense . listening to the sentences that
the following when dictating : speak clearly . do	not	slur or run words together . speak at an even pace
copies , mailing notations ; subject or reference	notations	; salutation and name of addressee (dear john or
, such as : format , number of copies , mailing	notations	; subject or reference notations ; salutation and
; other special references . prepare to transcribe : (	note	: refer to the operator' s manual for directions
then depressing the foot pedal and listening again . (	note	: these steps are repeated throughout the
. dictation techniques : organize for dictation : make	notes	. prepare an outline of points to cover . gather
to end . mentally punctuate the material . make	notes	on the following items : spelling of words that
in the following order : your name or identifying	number	; the item being dictated (letter , memo , etc .
, memo , etc .) ; instructions , such as : format ,	number	of copies , mailing notations ; subject or
-- the ability to find and correct any errors that	occur	during dictation and transcription . logical
to play back material for typing . each unit consists	of	a : listening device (headset) ; foot pedal
; foot pedal control ; playback unit . special features	of	a transcription unit : speed control device --
typist to transcribe . desk-top unit -- three styles	of	desk-top units are available : a dictation unit ,
. headset -- used to listen to dictation . types	of	discrete media : magnetic cards ; magnetic tape
unit for play back or filed for later use . types	of	discrete media equipment . portable dictation unit
equipment is categorized by the type	of	recording media used , either discrete or endless
device -- used to control the loudness and softness	of	the dictation . foot pedal -- used to start and
device -- used to increase or decrease the speed	of	the dictation . tone control device -- used to
-- used to automatically replay the last few words	of	the dictation . volume control device -- used to
. tone control device -- used to adjust the pitch	of	the dictator's voice . recall switch -- used to
it from the typewriter . clean up the work area : turn	off	the transcription unit and typewriter . remove the
enables the dictator to dictate material outside the	office	at any time . the recording medium is placed in a
determine information that is needed or that has been	omitted	, and if the message is clear and logical .
medium in the transcription unit . turn the unit	on	. preview the dictation . listen to the first item
(note : refer to the operator' s manual for directions	on	operating the unit .) check to see that the unit
skills -- the ability to rapidly and accurately record	on	paper whatever material is to be transcribed .
: organize work area and arrange material neatly	on	the desk . you will need the following items :
nd . mentally punctuate the material . make notes	on	the following items : spelling of words that need
: refer to the operator' s manual for directions on	operating	the unit .) check to see that the 0nit is plugged
. prepare to transcribe : (note : refer to the	operator'	s manual for directions on operating the unit .)
; reference books , such as : secretarial handbook ;	operator'	s manual for transcription unit ; word division
transcribing rhythm by : listening to a group of words	or	a phrase , then stopping the recording and typing
lines to the dictating devices -- a microphone	or	a telephone -- which are located at each
lines to the dictating devices -- a microphone	or	a telephone -- which are located at each
the recording unit is connected either by private wire	or	by telephone lines to the dictating devices -- a
; salutation and name of addressee (dear john	or	dear ms . smith) ; body of material ; closing
unit : speed control device -- used to increase	or	decrease the speed of the dictation . tone control
to be dictated according to priority . use index slip	or	electronic cueing to : indicate special
by the type of recording media used , either discrete	or	endless loop media . discrete media equipment --
unit and placed in a transcription unit for play back	or	filed for later use . types of discrete media
, etc . dictate in the following order : your name	or	identifying number ; the item being dictated (
rmat , number of copies , mailing notations ; subject	or	reference notations ; salutation and name of
following when dictating : speak clearly . do not slur	or	run words together . speak at an even pace .
confusing items by : listening closely to the phrases	or	sentences that do not make sense . listening to
transcription unit are connected either by private wire	or	telephone lines to the dictating devices -- a
-- the ability to determine information that is needed	or	that has been omitted , and if the message is
names , addresses , etc . dictate in the following	order	: your name or identifying number ; the item being
understanding the dictation . dictation techniques :	organize	for dictation : make notes . prepare an outline of
of points to cover . gather reference materials .	organize	materials to be dictated according to priority .
it from the typewriter . transcribing procedures :	organize	work area and arrange material neatly on the desk
be entered and recorded . dictator -- the person who	originates	paperwork ; a person who dictates copy for
transcription unit ; word division book ; dictionary ;	other	special references . prepare to transcribe : (
, paragraphs , indents , quotation marks , etc . spell	out	proper names , confusing names , addresses , etc .
organize for dictation : make notes . prepare an	outline	of points to cover . gather reference materials .
unit which enables the dictator to dictate material	outside	the office at any time . the recording medium is
. do not slur or run words together . speak at an even	pace	. dictate capitalization , punctuation ,
include : letterhead ; plain paper ; envelopes ; carbon	paper	; correcting utensils ; reference books , such as
and supplies which may include : letterhead ; plain	paper	; envelopes ; carbon paper ; correcting utensils ;
-- the ability to rapidly and accurately record on	paper	whatever material is to be transcribed . editing
and recorded . dictator -- the person who originates	paperwork	; a person who dictates copy for transcription

the ability to rapidly and accurately record on	paper	whatever material is to be transcribed
and recorded . dictator -- the person who originates	paperwork	; a person who dictates copy for transcription
an even pace . dictate capitalization , punctuation ,	paragraphs	, indents , quotation marks , etc . spell out
skills : listening skills -- the ability to	pay	attention , concentrate , and understand that
the loudness and softness of the dictation . foot	pedal	-- used to start and stop dictation and to replay
typing the group of words , then depressing the foot	pedal	and listening again . (note : these steps are
the unit is plugged in and that the headset and foot	pedal	are plugged in . place the recording medium in the
unit which includes : playback unit ; headset ; foot	pedal	control . typewriter and supplies which may
consists of a : listening device (headset) ; foot	pedal	control ; playback unit . special features of a
equipment which uses an endless loop of magnetic tape	permanently	enclosed in a tank to eliminate handling of the
. dictator -- the person who originates paperwork ; a	person	who dictates copy for transcription into final
can be entered and recorded . dictator -- the	person	who originates paperwork ; a person who dictates
dictation for transcribing . transcriptionist -- the	person	who produces recorded words into typewritten form
for the dictator and transcriptionist ; resistance of	personnel	to use equipment ; no immediate contact between
rhythm by : listening to a group of words or a	phrase	, then stopping the recording and typing the group
. verify confusing items by : listening closely to the	phrases	or sentences that do not make sense . listening to
dictation . tone control device -- used to adjust the	pitch	of the dictator's voice . recall switch -- used to
in and that the headset and foot pedal are plugged in .	place	the recording medium in the transcription unit .
media can be removed from the dictation unit and	placed	in a transcription unit for play back or filed for
the office at any time . the recording medium is	placed	in a transcription unit for the typist to
. the medium is removed from the recording unit and	placed	in the transcription unit . transcription unit --
at the end of the day . store supplies in appropriate	places	.
and supplies which may include : letterhead ;	plain	paper ; envelopes ; carbon paper ; correcting
. transcription unit -- used by the transcriptionist to	play	back material for typing . each unit consists of a
dictation unit and placed in a transcription unit for	play	back or filed for later use . types of discrete
dictation . transcription unit -- a device used to	play	back recorded dictation for transcribing .
a : listening device (headset) ; foot pedal control ;	playback	unit . special features of a transcription unit :
following items : transcription unit which includes :	playback	unit ; headset ; foot pedal control . typewriter
is plugged in and that the headset and foot pedal are	plugged	in . place the recording medium in the
on operating the unit .) check to see that the unit is	plugged	in and that the headset and foot pedal are plugged
for dictation : make notes . prepare an outline of	points	to cover . gather reference materials . organize
for later use . types of discrete media equipment .	portable	dictation unit -- a self-contained , hand-held
do not make sense . listening to the sentences that	precede	and follow the confusing items . consulting the
techniques : organize for dictation : make notes .	prepare	an outline of points to cover . gather reference
[illegible]ion book ; dictionary ; other special references .	prepare	to transcribe : (note : refer to the operator ' s
. determine the correct format for each item to be	prepared	. transcribe the material according to priorities
medium in the transcription unit . turn the unit on .	preview	the dictation . listen to the first item to be
to be prepared . transcribe the material according to	priorities	. proofread the transcript before removing it from
. organize materials to be dictated according to	priority	. use index slip or electronic cueing to :
system -- the recording unit is connected either by	private	wire or by telephone lines to the dictating
unit and the transcription unit are connected either by	private	wire or telephone lines to the dictating devices
before removing it from the typewriter . transcribing	procedures	: organize work area and arrange material neatly
: these steps are repeated throughout the transcription	process	.) correct errors as you transcribe so a mailable
: advantages : saves time and effort ; gets work	processed	quickly ; saves money ; increases productivity and
e . , floppy disc , magnetic card) . transcribe -- to	produce	a typed document from recorded dictation .
errors as you transcribe so a mailable copy will be	produced	. verify confusing items by : listening closely to
for transcribing . transcriptionist -- the person who	produces	recorded words into typewritten form .
; gets work processed quickly ; saves money ; increases	productivity	and efficiency ; makes better use of the dictator
. transcribe the material according to priorities .	proofread	the transcript before removing it from the
follow the confusing items . consulting the dictator .	proofread	the transcript carefully before removing it from
, indents , quotation marks , etc . spell out	proper	names , confusing names , addresses , etc .
and typewriter . remove the recording medium and file	properly	. cover the machine at the end of the day . store
item to be transcribed from beginning to end . mentally	punctuate	the material . make notes on the following items :
said . language arts skills -- these include spelling ,	punctuation	, and word usage . typewriting skills -- the
. speak at an even pace . dictate capitalization ,	punctuation	, paragraphs , indents , quotation marks , etc .
of the dictator and transcriptionist ' s time ; is the	quickest	method of capturing information ; is faster and
: saves time and effort ; gets work processed	quickly	; saves money ; increases productivity and
capitalization , punctuation , paragraphs , indents ,	quotation	marks , etc . spell out proper names , confusing
, and word usage . typewriting skills -- the ability to	rapidly	and accurately record on paper whatever material
-- used to adjust the pitch of the dictator's voice .	recall	switch -- used to automatically replay the last
. recording media -- magnetic supplies used to	record	and store information (i . e . , floppy disc ,
skills -- the ability to rapidly and accurately	record	on paper whatever material is to be transcribed .
-- a device into which information can be entered and	recorded	. dictator -- the person who originates paperwork
card) . transcribe -- to produce a typed document from	recorded	dictation . transcription unit -- a device used to
. transcription unit -- a device used to play back	recorded	dictation for transcribing . transcriptionist --
. transcriptionist -- the person who produces	recorded	words into typewritten form .
to a group of words or a phrase , then stopping the	recording	and typing the group of words , then depressing
dictates copy for transcription into final documents .	recording	media -- magnetic supplies used to record and
is determined by the type of	recording	media used . either discrete or endless loop media

dictates copy for transcription into final documents .	recording	media -- magnetic supplies used to record and
equipment is categorized by the type of	recording	media used , either discrete or endless loop media
enclosed in a tank to eliminate handling of the	recording	medium . the recording unit and the transcription
off the transcription unit and typewriter . remove the	recording	medium and file properly . cover the machine at
the headset and foot pedal are plugged in . place the	recording	medium in the transcription unit . turn the unit
dictate material outside the office at any time . the	recording	medium is placed in a transcription unit for the
discrete media equipment -- this equipment uses a	recording	medium which can be removed (i . e . , magnetic
dictator's desk . the medium is removed from the	recording	unit and placed in the transcription unit .
to eliminate handling of the recording medium . the	recording	unit and the transcription unit are connected
capabilities . centralized-recording system -- the	recording	unit is connected either by private wire or by
special references . prepare to transcribe : (note :	refer	to the operator' s manual for directions on
; envelopes ; carbon paper ; correcting utensils ;	reference	books , such as : secretarial handbook ; operator'
notes . prepare an outline of points to cover . gather	reference	materials . organize materials to be dictated
, number of copies , mailing notations ; subject or	reference	notations ; salutation and name of addressee (
unit ; word division book ; dictionary ; other special	references	. prepare to transcribe : (note : refer to the
instructions . indicate length of each item dictated .	remember	the following when dictating : speak clearly . do
area : turn off the transcription unit and typewriter .	remove	the recording medium and file properly . cover the
-- this equipment uses a recording medium which can be	removed	(i . e . , magnetic card , cassette) . discrete
. , magnetic card , cassette) . discrete media can be	removed	from the dictation unit and placed in a
are located at each dictator's desk . the medium is	removed	from the recording unit and placed in the
to priorities . proofread the transcript before	removing	it from the typewriter . clean up the work area :
dictator . proofread the transcript carefully before	removing	it from the typewriter . transcribing procedures :
pedal and listening again . (note : these steps are	repeated	throughout the transcription process .) correct
. foot pedal -- used to start and stop dictation and to	replay	the dictation . headset -- used to listen to
voice . recall switch -- used to automatically	replay	the last few words of the dictation . volume
to distribute workload . disadvantages : training time	required	for the dictator and transcriptionist ; resistance
time required for the dictator and transcriptionist ;	resistance	of personnel to use equipment ; no immediate
. transcribing techniques : develop a transcribing	rhythm	by : listening to a group of words or a phrase ,
when dictating : speak clearly . do not slur or	run	words together . speak at an even pace . dictate
prepare to transcribe : (note : refer to the operator'	s	manual for directions on operating the unit .)
books , such as : secretarial handbook ; operator'	s	manual for transcription unit ; word division book
makes better use of the dictator and transcriptionist'	s	time ; is the quickest method of capturing
concentrate , and understand that which is being	said	. language arts skills -- these include spelling ,
, mailing notations ; subject or reference notations ;	salutation	and name of addressee (dear john or dear ms .
: saves time and effort ; gets work processed quickly ;	saves	money ; increases productivity and efficiency ;
of dictation/transcription equipment : advantages :	saves	time and effort ; gets work processed quickly ;
; correcting utensils ; reference books , such as :	secretarial	handbook ; operator' s manual for transcription
for directions on operating the unit .) check to	see	that the unit is plugged in and that the headset
discrete media equipment . portable dictation unit -- a	self-contained	, hand-held unit which enables the dictator to
closely to the phrases or sentences that do not make	sense	. listening to the sentences that precede and
items by : listening closely to the phrases or	sentences	that do not make sense . listening to the
or sentences that do not make sense . listening to the	sentences	that precede and follow the confusing items .
. determine the approximate length of the dictation and	set	the typewriter margins accordingly . determine the
; is faster and easier to transcribe than longhand and	shorthand	; easier to distribute workload . disadvantages :
during dictation and transcription . logical thinking	skills	-- the ability to determine information that is
paper whatever material is to be transcribed . editing	skills	-- the ability to find and correct any errors that
, enclosures , etc . transcription skills : listening	skills	-- the ability to pay attention , concentrate ,
spelling , punctuation , and word usage . typewriting	skills	-- the ability to rapidly and accurately record on
and understand that which is being said . language arts	skills	-- these include spelling , punctuation , and word
; carbon copies , enclosures , etc . transcription	skills	: listening skills -- the ability to pay attention
to be dictated according to priority . use index	slip	or electronic cueing to : indicate special
the following when dictating : speak clearly . do not	slur	or run words together . speak at an even pace .
and name of addressee (dear john or dear ms .	smith	) ; body of material ; closing lines :
process .) correct errors as you transcribe	so	a mailable copy will be produced . verify
control device -- used to control the loudness and	softness	of the dictation . foot pedal -- used to start and
: speak clearly . do not slur or run words together .	speak	at an even pace . dictate capitalization ,
item dictated . remember the following when dictating :	speak	clearly . do not slur or run words together .
(headset) ; foot pedal control ; playback unit .	special	features of a transcription unit : speed control
distinguishable words that need to be clarified ;	special	instructions . adjust the volume , speed , and
. use index slip or electronic cueing to : indicate	special	instructions . indicate length of each item
unit ; word division book ; dictionary ; other	special	references . prepare to transcribe : (note :
clarified ; special instructions . adjust the volume ,	speed	, and tone controls . determine the approximate
unit . special features of a transcription unit :	speed	control device -- used to increase or decrease the
control device -- used to increase or decrease the	speed	of the dictation . tone control device -- used to
, paragraphs , indents , quotation marks , etc .	spell	out proper names , confusing names , addresses ,
is being said . language arts skills -- these include	spelling	, punctuation , and word usage . typewriting

; paragraphs ; indents ; quotation marks , etc .	spell	out proper names ; confusing names ; addresses ;
is being said . language arts skills -- these include	spelling	, punctuation , and word usage . typewriting
the material . make notes on the following items :	spelling	of words that need to be checked ; names that need
and softness of the dictation . foot pedal -- used to	start	and stop dictation and to replay the dictation .
the foot pedal and listening again . (note : these	steps	are repeated throughout the transcription process
of the dictation . foot pedal -- used to start and	stop	dictation and to replay the dictation . headset --
by : listening to a group of words or a phrase , then	stopping	the recording and typing the group of words , then
recording media -- magnetic supplies used to record and	store	information (i . e . , floppy disc , magnetic
perly . cover the machine at the end of the day .	store	supplies in appropriate places .
for the typist to transcribe . desk-top unit -- three	styles	of desk-top units are available : a dictation unit
as : format , number of copies , mailing notations ;	subject	or reference notations ; salutation and name of
dictated (letter , memo , etc .) ; instructions ,	such	as : format , number of copies , mailing notations
carbon paper ; correcting utensils ; reference books ,	such	as : secretarial handbook ; operator ' s manual for
. cover the machine at the end of the day . store	supplies	in appropriate places .
into final documents . recording media -- magnetic	supplies	used to record and store information (i . e . ,
unit ; headset ; foot pedal control . typewriter and	supplies	which may include : letterhead ; plain paper ;
to adjust the pitch of the dictator's voice . recall	switch	-- used to automatically replay the last few words
magnetic tape cassettes ; magnetic discs . endless loop	system	-- dictation equipment which uses an endless loop
capabilities . centralized-recording	system	-- the recording unit is connected either by
endless loop of magnetic tape permanently enclosed in a	tank	to eliminate handling of the recording medium .
. types of discrete media : magnetic cards ; magnetic	tape	cassettes ; magnetic discs . endless loop system
equipment which uses an endless loop of magnetic	tape	permanently enclosed in a tank to eliminate
and if the message is clear and logical . transcribing	techniques	: develop a transcribing rhythm by : listening to
understanding the dictation . dictation	techniques	: organize for dictation : make notes . prepare an
lines to the dictating devices -- a microphone or a	telephone	-- which are located at each dictator's desk . the
lines to the dictating devices -- a microphone or a	telephone	-- which are located at each dictator's desk .
unit is connected either by private wire or by	telephone	lines to the dictating devices -- a microphone or
unit are connected either by private wire or	telephone	lines to the dictating devices -- a microphone or
machine transcription .	terms	and definitions : dictation unit -- a device into
information ; is faster and easier to transcribe	than	longhand and shorthand ; easier to distribute
by : listening closely to the phrases or sentences	that	do not make sense . listening to the sentences
the ability to determine information that is needed or	that	has been omitted , and if the message is clear and
thinking skills -- the ability to determine information	that	is needed or that has been omitted , and if the
. make notes on the following items : spelling of words	that	need to be checked ; names that need to be
hat need to be verified ; indistinguishable words	that	need to be clarified ; special instructions .
: spelling of words that need to be checked ; names	that	need to be verified ; indistinguishable words that
skills -- the ability to find and correct any errors	that	occur during dictation and transcription . logical
that do not make sense . listening to the sentences	that	precede and follow the confusing items .
unit .) check to see that the unit is plugged in and	that	the headset and foot pedal are plugged in . place
for directions on operating the unit .) check to see	that	the unit is plugged in and that the headset and
ability to pay attention , concentrate , and understand	that	which is being said . language arts skills --
either by private wire or by telephone lines to	the	dictating devices -- a microphone or a telephone
card , cassette) . discrete media can be removed from	the	dictation unit and placed in a transcription unit
unit -- a self-contained , hand-held unit which enables	the	dictator to dictate material outside the office at
which enables the dictator to dictate material outside	the	office at any time . the recording medium is
information can be entered and recorded . dictator --	the	person who originates paperwork ; a person who
dictation for transcribing . transcriptionist --	the	person who produces recorded words into
to dictate material outside the office at any time .	the	recording medium is placed in a transcription unit
capabilities . centralized-recording system --	the	recording unit is connected either by private wire
: dictation/transcription equipment is categorized by	the	type of recording media used , either discrete or
recording medium is placed in a transcription unit for	the	typist to transcribe . desk-top unit -- three
stopping the recording and typing the group of words ,	then	depressing the foot pedal and listening again . (
rhythm by : listening to a group of words or a phrase ,	then	stopping the recording and typing the group of
that which is being said . language arts skills --	these	include spelling , punctuation , and word usage .
the foot pedal and listening again . (note :	these	steps are repeated throughout the transcription
that occur during dictation and transcription . logical	thinking	skills -- the ability to determine information
or endless loop media . discrete media equipment --	this	equipment uses a recording medium which can be
unit for the typist to transcribe . desk-top unit --	three	styles of desk-top units are available : a
and listening again . (note : these steps are repeated	throughout	the transcription process .) correct errors as
dictator to dictate material outside the office at any	time	. the recording medium is placed in a
etter use of the dictator and transcriptionist ' s	time	; is the quickest method of capturing information
dictation/transcription equipment : advantages : saves	time	and effort ; gets work processed quickly ; saves
to distribute workload . disadvantages : training	time	required for the dictator and transcriptionist ;
lines : complimentary closing ; dictator's name and	title	; carbon copies , enclosures , etc . transcription
speed of the dictation . tone control device -- used	to	adjust the pitch of the dictator's voice . recall
pitch of the dictator's voice . recall switch -- used	to	automatically replay the last few words of the
, hand-held unit which enables the dictator	to	dictate material outside the office at any time .
of a transcription unit : speed control device -- used	to	increase or decrease the speed of the dictation .

, hand-held unit which enables the dictator	to	dictate material outside the office at any time .
of a transcription unit : speed control device -- used	to	increase or decrease the speed of the dictation .
. transcription unit -- used by the transcriptionist	to	play back material for typing . each unit consists
dictation . transcription unit -- a device used	to	play back recorded dictation for transcribing .
i . e . , floppy disc , magnetic card) . transcribe --	to	produce a typed document from recorded dictation .
documents . recording media -- magnetic supplies used	to	record and store information (i . e . , floppy
connected either by private wire or by telephone lines	to	the dictating devices -- a microphone or a
[illegible] is placed in a transcription unit for the typist	to	transcribe . desk-top unit -- three styles of
dictating : speak clearly . do not slur or run words	together	. speak at an even pace . dictate capitalization ,
to increase or decrease the speed of the dictation .	tone	control device -- used to adjust the pitch of the
special instructions . adjust the volume , speed , and	tone	controls . determine the approximate length of the
; easier to distribute workload . disadvantages :	training	time required for the dictator and
information (i . e . , floppy disc , magnetic card) .	transcribe	-- to produce a typed document from recorded
is placed in a transcription unit for the typist to	transcribe	. desk-top unit -- three styles of desk-top units
; dictionary ; other special references . prepare to	transcribe	: (note : refer to the operator' s manual for
the transcription process .) correct errors as you	transcribe	so a mailable copy will be produced . verify
of capturing information ; is faster and easier to	transcribe	than longhand and shorthand ; easier to distribute
the correct format for each item to be prepared .	transcribe	the material according to priorities . proofread
accurately record on paper whatever material is to be	transcribed	. editing skills -- the ability to find and
preview the dictation . listen to the first item to be	transcribed	from beginning to end . mentally punctuate the
-- a device used to play back recorded dictation for	transcribing	. transcriptionist -- the person who produces
carefully before removing it from the typewriter .	transcribing	procedures : organize work area and arrange
clear and logical . transcribing techniques : develop a	transcribing	rhythm by : listening to a group of words or a
omitted , and if the message is clear and logical .	transcribing	techniques : develop a transcribing rhythm by :
the material according to priorities . proofread the	transcript	before removing it from the typewriter . clean up
items . consulting the dictator . proofread the	transcript	carefully before removing it from the typewriter .
and correct any errors that occur during dictation and	transcription	. logical thinking skills -- the ability to
machine	transcription	. terms and definitions : dictation unit -- a
originates paperwork ; a person who dictates copy for	transcription	into final documents . recording media -- magnetic
. (note : these steps are repeated throughout the	transcription	process .) correct errors as you transcribe so a
name and title ; carbon copies , enclosures , etc .	transcription	skills : listening skills -- the ability to pay
of desk-top units are available : a dictation unit , a	transcription	unit , a combination unit with both
to produce a typed document from recorded dictation .	transcription	unit -- a device used to play back recorded
[illegible]rding unit and placed in the transcription unit .	transcription	unit -- used by the transcriptionist to play back
[illegible] removed from the recording unit and placed in the	transcription	unit . transcription unit -- used by the
are plugged in . place the recording medium in the	transcription	unit . turn the unit on . preview the dictation .
pedal control ; playback unit . special features of a	transcription	unit : speed control device -- used to increase or
such as : secretarial handbook ; operator' s manual for	transcription	unit ; word division book ; dictionary ; other
the typewriter . clean up the work area : turn off the	transcription	unit and typewriter . remove the recording medium
of the recording medium . the recording unit and the	transcription	unit are connected either by private wire or
can be removed from the dictation unit and placed in a	transcription	unit for play back or filed for later use . types
at any time . the recording medium is placed in a	transcription	unit for the typist to transcribe . desk-top unit
on the desk . you will need the following items :	transcription	unit which includes : playback unit ; headset ;
used to play back recorded dictation for transcribing .	transcriptionist	-- the person who produces recorded words into
: training time required for the dictator and	transcriptionist	; resistance of personnel to use equipment ; no
equipment ; no immediate contact between dictator and	transcriptionist	difficulty in transcriptionist understanding the
transcription unit . transcription unit -- used by the	transcriptionist	to play back material for typing . each unit
between dictator and transcriptionist difficulty in	transcriptionist	understanding the dictation . dictation techniques
and efficiency ; makes better use of the dictator and	transcriptionist'	s time ; is the quickest method of capturing
it from the typewriter . clean up the work area :	turn	off the transcription unit and typewriter . remove
place the recording medium in the transcription unit .	turn	the unit on . preview the dictation . listen to
dictation/transcription equipment is categorized by the	type	of recording media used , either discrete or
disc , magnetic card) . transcribe -- to produce a	typed	document from recorded dictation . transcription
dictation . headset -- used to listen to dictation .	types	of discrete media : magnetic cards ; magnetic tape
unit for play back or filed for later use .	types	of discrete media equipment . portable dictation
. proofread the transcript before removing it from the	typewriter	. clean up the work area : turn off the
up the work area : turn off the transcription unit and	typewriter	. remove the recording medium and file properly .
the transcript carefully before removing it from the	typewriter	. transcribing procedures : organize work area and
: playback unit ; headset ; foot pedal control .	typewriter	and supplies which may include : letterhead ;
the approximate length of the dictation and set the	typewriter	margins accordingly . determine the correct format
t[illegible] include spelling , punctuation , and word usage .	typewriting	skills -- the ability to rapidly and accurately
-- the person who produces recorded words into	typewritten	form . dictation/transcription equipment :
used by the transcriptionist to play back material for	typing	. each unit consists of a : listening device .
of words or a phrase , then stopping the recording and	typing	the group of words , then depressing the foot
medium is placed in a transcription unit for the	typist	to transcribe . desk-top unit -- three styles of
-- the ability to pay attention , concentrate , and	understand	that which is being said . language arts skills --
and transcriptionist difficulty in transcriptionist	understanding	the dictation . dictation techniques : organize

-- the ability to pay attention , concentrate , and	understand	that which is being said . language arts skills --
and transcriptionist difficulty in transcriptionist	understanding	the dictation . dictation techniques : organize
are available : a dictation unit , a transcription	unit	, a combination unit with both
styles of desk-top units are available : a dictation	unit	, a transcription unit , a combination unit with
transcription . terms and definitions : dictation	unit	-- a device into which information can be entered
typed document from recorded dictation . transcription	unit	-- a device used to play back recorded dictation
types of discrete media equipment . portable dictation	unit	-- a self-contained , hand-held unit which enables
unit for the typist to transcribe . desk-top	unit	-- three styles of desk-top units are available :
and placed in the transcription unit . transcription	unit	-- used by the transcriptionist to play back
the operator's manual for directions on operating the	unit	.) check to see that the unit is plugged in and
device (headset) ; foot pedal control ; playback	unit	. special features of a transcription unit : speed
from the recording unit and placed in the transcription	unit	. transcription unit -- used by the
in . place the recording medium in the transcription	unit	. turn the unit on . preview the dictation .
; playback unit . special features of a transcription	unit	: speed control device -- used to increase or
items : transcription unit which includes : playback	unit	; headset ; foot pedal control . typewriter and
handbook ; operator's manual for transcription	unit	; word division book ; dictionary ; other special
) . discrete media can be removed from the dictation	unit	and placed in a transcription unit for play back
desk . the medium is removed from the recording	unit	and placed in the transcription unit .
handling of the recording medium . the recording	unit	and the transcription unit are connected either by
. clean up the work area : turn off the transcription	unit	and typewriter . remove the recording medium and
medium . the recording unit and the transcription	unit	are connected either by private wire or telephone
to play back material for typing . each	unit	consists of a : listening device (headset) ;
from the dictation unit and placed in a transcription	unit	for play back or filed for later use . types of
. the recording medium is placed in a transcription	unit	for the typist to transcribe . desk-top unit --
. centralized-recording system -- the recording	unit	is connected either by private wire or by
on operating the unit .) check to see that the	unit	is plugged in and that the headset and foot pedal
recording medium in the transcription unit . turn the	unit	on . preview the dictation . listen to the first
portable dictation unit -- a self-contained , hand-held	unit	which enables the dictator to dictate material
. you will need the following items : transcription	unit	which includes : playback unit ; headset ; foot
a dictation unit , a transcription unit , a combination	unit	with both dictation/transcription capabilities .
transcribe . desk-top unit -- three styles of desk-top	units	are available : a dictation unit , a transcription
before removing it from the typewriter . clean	up	the work area : turn off the transcription unit
-- these include spelling , punctuation , and word	usage	. typewriting skills -- the ability to rapidly and
transcription unit for play back or filed for later	use	. types of discrete media equipment . portable
and transcriptionist ; resistance of personnel to	use	equipment ; no immediate contact between dictator
materials to be dictated according to priority .	use	index slip or electronic cueing to : indicate
; increases productivity and efficiency ; makes better	use	of the dictator and transcriptionist's time ; is
equipment is categorized by the type of recording media	used	, either discrete or endless loop media . discrete
in the transcription unit . transcription unit --	used	by the transcriptionist to play back material for
the speed of the dictation . tone control device --	used	to adjust the pitch of the dictator's voice .
the pitch of the dictator's voice . recall switch --	used	to automatically replay the last few words of the
few words of the dictation . volume control device --	used	to control the loudness and softness of the
of a transcription unit : speed control device --	used	to increase or decrease the speed of the dictation
stop dictation and to replay the dictation . headset --	used	to listen to dictation . types of discrete media :
recorded dictation . transcription unit -- a device	used	to play back recorded dictation for transcribing .
final documents . recording media -- magnetic supplies	used	to record and store information (i . e . , floppy
loudness and softness of the dictation . foot pedal --	used	to start and stop dictation and to replay the
loop media . discrete media equipment -- this equipment	uses	a recording medium which can be removed (i . e .
. endless loop system -- dictation equipment which	uses	an endless loop of magnetic tape permanently
; plain paper ; envelopes ; carbon paper ; correcting	utensils	; reference books , such as : secretarial handbook
words that need to be checked ; names that need to be	verified	; indistinguishable words that need to be
as you transcribe so a mailable copy will be produced .	verify	confusing items by : listening closely to the
device -- used to adjust the pitch of the dictator's	voice	. recall switch -- used to automatically replay
to be clarified ; special instructions . adjust the	volume	, speed , and tone controls . determine the
replay the last few words of the dictation .	volume	control device -- used to control the loudness and
the ability to rapidly and accurately record on paper	whatever	material is to be transcribed . editing skills --
length of each item dictated . remember the following	when	dictating : speak clearly . do not slur or run
the dictating devices -- a microphone or a telephone --	which	are located at each dictator's desk . advantages
the dictating devices -- a microphone or a telephone --	which	are located at each dictator's desk . the medium
equipment -- this equipment uses a recording medium	which	can be removed (i . e . , magnetic card ,
dictation unit -- a self-contained , hand-held unit	which	enables the dictator to dictate material outside
you will need the following items : transcription unit	which	includes : playback unit ; headset ; foot pedal
terms and definitions : dictation unit -- a device into	which	information can be entered and recorded . dictator
to pay attention , concentrate , and understand that	which	is being said . language arts skills -- these
headset ; foot pedal control . typewriter and supplies	which	may include : letterhead ; plain paper ; envelopes
discs . endless loop system -- dictation equipment	which	uses an endless loop of magnetic tape permanently
-- the person who originates paperwork ; a person	who	dictates copy for transcription into final

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  discs . endless loop system -- dictation equipment   which      uses an endless loop of magnetic tape permanently
         -- the person who originates paperwork ; a person  who        dictates copy for transcription into final
  can be entered and recorded . dictator -- the person   who        originates paperwork ; a person who dictates copy
     for transcribing . transcriptionist -- the person   who        produces recorded words into typewritten form .
. ) correct errors as you transcribe so a mailable copy  will       be produced . verify confusing items by :
work area and arrange material neatly on the desk . you  will       need the following items : transcription unit
  -- the recording unit is connected either by private  wire       or by telephone lines to the dictating devices --
t[illegible]anscription unit are connected either by private  wire       or telephone lines to the dictating devices -- a
      unit , a transcription unit , a combination unit   with       both dictation/transcription capabilities .
handbook ; operator' s manual for transcription unit ;   word       division book ; dictionary ; other special
  skills -- these include spelling , punctuation , and   word       usage . typewriting skills -- the ability to
 , then stopping the recording and typing the group of   words      , then depressing the foot pedal and listening
. transcriptionist -- the person who produces recorded   words      into typewritten form . dictation/transcription
   switch -- used to automatically replay the last few   words      of the dictation . volume control device -- used
    a transcribing rhythm by : listening to a group of   words      or a phrase , then stopping the recording and
      . make notes on the following items : spelling of  words      that need to be checked ; names that need to be
  ; names that need to be verified ; indistinguishable   words      that need to be clarified ; special instructions .
   when dictating : speak clearly . do not slur or run   words      together . speak at an even pace . dictate
 before removing it from the typewriter . clean up the   work       area : turn off the transcription unit and
   the typewriter . transcribing procedures : organize   work       area and arrange material neatly on the desk . you
 equipment : advantages : saves time and effort ; gets   work       processed quickly ; saves money ; increases
    than longhand and shorthand ; easier to distribute   workload   . disadvantages : training time required for the
       the transcription process . ) correct errors as   you        transcribe so a mailable copy will be produced .
   work area and arrange material neatly on the desk .   you        will need the following items : transcription unit
   , addresses , etc . dictate in the following order :  your       name or identifying number ; the item being



End of sorted concordance listing


[illegible] concordance item was #1275.
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THE CASE STUDY APPROACH TO TEACHING LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS: PROBLEMS AND BENEFITS

By

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THE CASE STUDY APPROACH TO TEACHING LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS: PROBLEMS AND BENEFITS

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Introduction

The case study approach has received considerable attention recently as a effective way to teach languages for business. Piotrowski's article entitled "Business as Usual: Using the Case Method to Teach ESL to Executives" advocated the case study approach in the June, 1982 TESOL Quarterly. The purpose of this paper is to examine some of the problems and benefits associated with the methodology, materials, and mastery of the case study approach in the language for business classroom.

Business schools around the world use the case study approach made famous by Harvard Business School for over seventy years. The first cases were written by Harvard professors who studied a business problem and wrote a description of the management situation in their report to the company that asked them to investigate the problem. The professors used the cases in their classes, thereby bringing actual business problems that they had been consulted to analyse and "solve" to their students. The same procedure is used frequently today to produce case studies. Although Harvard Business School remains the most renowned and prolific producer of case studies, professors of other prestigious business schools such as Stanford University and the University of Virginia have written a large body of cases, often as a direct result of their own consulting experiences. Due to the problem-solving nature of the case study method, its use is not restricted to business schools. On the contrary, medical schools, public health institutions, schools of education and the government use the case study approach for training doctors, health officials, teachers, and government employees. In addition, a number of departments in colleges of arts and sciences employ the case study method. For business language courses, the case study approach is appropriate for a variety of reasons, including its emphasis on situational analysis and communicative activities such as role playing.

Essentially, a business case is a description of a management problem or decision that occurs at a given place and time. The students must analyse the situation and decide on an appropriate course of action. A typical case from the Harvard Business Case collection called "Steinway and Sons" can be summarized as follows: "This case considers whether Steinway should reintroduce a long-discontinued product line to meet competition from the Japanese. It raises the issue of just how quality is defined in this market. It looks closely at a production process relying on craft skills. Students have the opportunity to consider issues of quality." (_Harvard Business School Case Collection: New Course Material 1982-83_). As is evident from this example, the case study brings the realities of business practices into the classroom, and involves the student in meaningful, practice-oriented learning activities.

Method

The methods of teaching business cases can be summarized as a series of basic principles It is interesting to note that all of the methods have been described in the language learning literature as effective for teaching second languages The first principle of case instruction is situational analysis, that encourages the student to focus on a specific and very real situation. The realism of the case increases the interest and motivational levels of the student while the emphasis on analysis develops critical thinking and cognitive processes Small class or whole group discussion is vital to case analysis as well as to the development of listening and speaking strategies In the foreign language classroom, the situational analysis principle appears in role-playing, problem solving and simulation activities. Language acquisition theorists such as Krashen advocate the use of realistic, communicative and meaningful activities to promote second language acquisition. Case studies provide the students with the opportunity for active involvement in relevant communication

The second fundamental principle of teaching case analysis is demonstrating the relationship between analysis and action The student must apply her knowledge to the situation and recommend a course of action In the second language class, this is often done in role-plays and problem solving activities

The third major principle of teaching business cases is the fostering of a learner-centered classroom in which the students play the central role in the class Of necessity, the teacher relinquishes some of her traditional authority while turning over much of the responsibility for learning to the students. The students have to think about the case, discuss the situation, identify the problem, think of alternative solutions, choose a course of action and discuss future implications of such action. The teacher's role is that of a discussion or exploration guide rather than the traditional authority figure who supplies the correct answers. In case study, many times more than one answer is correct or appropriate. The very lack of precise answers can be frustrating to teachers who prefer total control of their classroom, and to students who are not used to being in charge of their own learning. For over a decade much attention has been directed toward the learner-centered foreign language classroom, in the belief that a focus on the learner will enhance mastery of material, motivation, and responsibility for learning.

The final methodological principle is that one of the chief goals of the case study method is to produce an "administrative point of view" in the student. "Administrative point of view" refers to the ability to size up a situation, consider a variety of possible ways to approach a problem, and decide on appropriate action. Again, in the foreign language classroom, this principle has been cultivated in role-plays and simulations, and in the general development of flexibity and creativity in language use.

One of the primary challenges for the instructor using the case method is how to lead a case discussion in class. The case discussion process allows students to explore the complexity of the case situation to promote mutual learning. The instructor needs to ask the right question of a specific student at the appropriate time to maximize learning for all

To effectively lead the case discussion, the instructor must have intellectual command of the basic theory and concepts covered in the case As a language teacher, of course the professor must also be proficient in the language

Perhaps the most difficult challenge for the case study teacher is the creation of the student-centered classroom necessary for the case study approach The teacher must give up some control of the class, unable to use a planned lecture or an instructor centered question-answer session Instead, the case study approach calls for a difficult to plan, free-flowing discussion that is driven by student ideas The discussion is likely to take interesting but unpredictable turns The teacher has to be flexible, and prepared for any eventuality in the discussion The purpose of the class discussion, of course, is to explore the situation with its givens, possibilities, likely solutions and their consequences Students and teachers alike may feel uncomfortable with the ambiguity and open-endedness of the case study method

The open-endedness of the case discussion permits creative use of language and exchange of ideas Ideally, students become so involved with the content of the class that they forget to be inhibited by the language Fear of making errors is reduced, and the meaning of the language becomes the focal point for communication The activities of the case study method are largely communicative, and always purposeful Students are called upon to analyse a realistic situation and brainstorm alternative courses of action As they become more involved in the situation, the more realistic the case becomes and the more intense the discussion Role-playing or simulation evolves naturally or is directed subtly by the teacher

In spite of the free-flowing nature of the case study discussion, the teacher can consciously plan for a more successful class One way to achieve a higher degree of class discussion is to promote student to student interaction, rather than teacher to student discussion The instructor can also focus on directing the class discussion rather than dominating it The teacher can ask questions which are derived from previous student comments or she can suggest alternative approaches to problems She might also highlight neglected information and its possible consequences Other techniques include the request for clarification of assumptions or for a summary of the discussion at any point in the class

Preparing to teach the case study involves the thorough preparation of the case of the day A written analysis of the case may help the teacher to gain a command of the case facts necessary to make a logical analysis of the situation The professor can try to predict the course of the discussion and prepare for possible alternative responses by the students The opening and closing of the course can be planned by considering whether to ask for volunteers or select lead students to start the opening discussion or to summarize at the end of class

Materials

The lack of case study materials and related exercises can be a major problem for language for business teachers However, the Harvard Business School and several case clearinghouses in French, German and Spanish speaking countries offer thousands of business cases in a wide variety of topics in English, Spanish, French and German The cases are not written specifically for foreign language classes, rather they are intended for use in business courses However, the teacher can adapt the cases for language for business courses by emphasizing reading skills, vocabulary development, communication strategies and critical thinking The teacher may want to develop exercises that are suited to the specific language needs of her students

The handout lists the clearinghouses for cases in Spanish, French and German as well as sources of cases in English The Harvard Business School is the principle distributor of case studies in English Many of the Harvard cases which have been translated into French, Spanish and German are available through the clearinghouses Other well-known business schools such as Stanford University and the University of Virginia distribute their own case studies

Mastery

A third major challenge to teachers of case studies is the mastery of the business concepts and theory contained in the cases Naturally some cases are more complex than others, and some teachers have had more business training than others Teachers who are concerned about their business knowledge can take advantage of the teachers manuals that accompany many of the Harvard Business School cases An instructor with less business background might want to choose only those cases with teacher's manuals, or cases which deal with topics that are familiar or of special interest to the instructor The Harvard Business School Case Directory has a topic index and annotations about specific cases that are very useful for selecting appropriate cases

To help instructors who are not familiar with teaching business cases, Harvard Business School has devoted several cases specifically to teacher training Among these cases are "Trevor Jones", which treats the problem of selecting a student to lead off a case discussion, and the use of role-playing, the "Case of the Disgruntled Student", and "HB 1" which describes a new instructor who runs into problems when he tries to use a non-traditional way of beginning a course.

In conclusion, the challenges of using the case study method in language for business classes are not insurmountable The methods that are an integral part of the case study approach such as role-playing, critical thinking, situational analysis, learner-centered classroom, small and whole group discussion, exploration of alternatives and summaries are commonly used in the foreign language classroom In addition, the advantage of teaching language through content is widely recognized, and is characteristic of the case study approach Student involvement in realistic problem-solving activities promotes a high level of interest and motivation Case studies in a variety of languages are readily available, although teachers may want to develop supplementary materials that focus on language skills A wide range of case topics and the availability of teaching manuals will help the inexperienced teacher to use this approach

Undoubtedly teachers and students of languages for business can benefit in many ways from the use of the case study approach

The Case Study Approach to Teaching Languages for Business: Problems and Benefits

by Christine Uber Grosse, Florida International University

Availability of Case Study Materials

1 Case Studies in English

Harvard Business School Case Collection: Directory of Course Material Boston, MS: Harvard Business School, 198 $125 1077 pgs , Index volume available for $25, 456 pgs

Computerized printout of over 5,000 cases which are currently available in six subject categories. Course modules and videotapes are described following case listings

Harvard Business School Case Collection. New Course Material 1982-1983 Boston, MA: HBS, 1983 $15 315 pgs

Annotated listings of new cases, best-selling cases, course modules and videotapes plus indexes by author, title and topic

Directory of Management Cases Boston, MA: Harvard Business School, 1983. $10 155 pgs.

Listings of non-Harvard Business School cases and information on how to order the material

The above works can be ordered from HBS Case Services, Morgan Hall, Harvard Business School, Boston, MA 02163

2 Clearinghouses for Case Studies in Spanish:

Cedo, Universidad EAFIT
Apartado Aereo 3300
Medellin, COLOMBIA

IESE
Avenida Pearson 21
Barcelona 34, SPAIN

3 Clearinghouses for Case Studies in French

Centrale de Cas HEC
5255 Avenue Decelles
Montreal, H3T 1V6 CANADA

Centrale de Cas
47 Rue de Toqueville
75017 Paris, FRANCE

4 Clearinghouse for Case Studies in German

Zentrale fur Fallstudien
Schloss Gracht (USW)
D-5042, Erfstadt 1 (Liblar)
WEST GERMANY

5. How to teach the case method.

Christensen, C. Roland *Teaching by the Case Method* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Division of Research, 1981

BUSINESS SIMULATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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INTRODUCTION

The essential premise of communicative language teaching is that successful second language acquisition is best facilitated through the learner solving real and interesting problems in the second language (Widdowson 1978, inter alia). Within the general communicative approach, it is often difficult to select or design appropriately challenging and interesting problems for students to tackle. Good simulations of academic or professional activities can be used to provide such problems for second language students. Such simulations appear useful for language training for a number of reasons: (1) they are interesting and challenging to students, (2) the critical academic substance is provided by the simulation designers, who are experts in the particular discipline, (3) the simulation format presents natural opportunities for inserting additional language learning activities.

This paper describes a pilot project, conducted within the American English Institute at the University of Oregon, on the use of a published business-oriented management simulation in English language training for university-bound international students. The paper considers the rationale for the pilot project, the details of organizing language teaching around a particular business simulation, the results of our pilot effort, and recommendations on how to implement similar language teaching efforts.

Problems and issues in intensive ELT programs

There are a number of specific problems in developing the language teaching curriculum in an intensive program such as that at the American English Institute. Unlike many traditional foreign language courses in the university setting, even those called `intensive', the Institute sees its students an average of 26 hours per week. Students enroll in the Institute for as many as four academic quarters before gaining admission to either graduate and undergraduate programs at the University of Oregon or a similar institution. The student population is heterogeneous, embracing a wide variety of academic specialties and linguistic backgrounds. These circumstances generate several problems which the pilot simulation was designed to address.

The first issue is an affective one. Maintaining motivation and interest can become difficult for students, for language training may seem both routine and divorced from primary goals. Language learning is often seen as a secondary activity, a hurdle to be overcome before beginning `real' work. Even where traditional language training is done well and creatively, it can become frustrating and dull for some students in the intensive institute setting.

The second issue is the feasibility of providing a wide range of specific purpose courses given the Institute's heterogeneous student population. This population represents more than 30 different nations, virtually all major academic and professional disciplines, and graduate as well as undergraduate study. Given student diversity and the costs of staffing numerous small classes, it is simply not feasible to offer a wide variety special purpose language courses, yet students still desire more specific purpose training.

The third issue is the level of active student involvement in typical oral skills classes. It is generally accepted that learning is enhanced for students who actively engage in communicative activity. Engagement in communicative activity, in turn, is a function of the type of communicative demand placed upon the student by the task. Tasks require engagement if the student is placed, in effect, on-stage during linguistic performance (as is commonly seen in oral skills classes). On the other hand, tasks invite engagement if the student is individually motivated to respond during the communicative activity.

Oral communication classes are most successful when they have a high density of individually motivated student response. Effective teaching methods achieve high levels of student engagement not by requiring it but by so strongly inviting it that the student has no `choice' but to be actively engaged in oral communication.

Simulations are one way of addressing these issues. Simulations strive to represent some portion of the `real world' in a specific content area; thus they can do much to reduce the level of student frustration and make the language learning situation appear more viable. This type of specific purpose training can be provided to students in a wide variety of disciplines at minimal cost to the institute, in constrast to more expensive full-term ESP courses. Finally, simulations invite a high level of individually motivated student response since interaction revolves around solving a `real' problem of genuine interest to the students. Students find themselves in what in many respects is an ideal learning situation: a high level of enthusiasm and student engagement in communicative activity with a minimum of overt teacher interference.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework under which this pilot project was conducted is the communicative approach to second language learning and teaching. This approach argues in general that language learning is best facilitated when students are engaged in solving genuine problems using the target language. The focus in both learning and teaching is removed from the language itself (usage) and placed upon its instrumental role in human communication (use). The best representative work in the communicative approach is that of Henry Widdowson (1978, inter alia). Widdowson and others have created an extensive body of research describing how to make language teaching more communicative, research which is grounded in considerable practical success in teaching second languages (primarily English).

Among the particular recommendations made for communicative language teaching are the following:

(1) Focus the learner on language use rather than on language usage. That is, involve the learner in using the new language to solve non-language problems that are meaningful to him.

(2) Engage the learner in meaningful discourse. All natural language use involves communication in specific discourse contexts; one does not ordinarily communicate in a series of unrelated or artificially connected sentences. The language learning setting therefore should present the learner with meaningful discourse contexts in which to work.

(3) Keep language skills integrated in language training. In natural discourse, especially during oral communication, language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) are not ordinarily separated from one another. Similarly, in language training, one should seek to integrate language skills in communicative activities.

Within the general theoretical and methodological framework of the communicative approach, there are several specific studies that have influenced this pilot project. First, Skeldon and Swales (1983) describe the organization of special, short-term language training seminars for students of engineering at the University of Aston in Birmingham. Motivated primarily by time pressures within the regular curriculum, the seminar described consisted of several teams of engineering students competing to design a novel musical instrument, or `music machine'. Information necessary for effective design was provided through videotapes and readings, and students were forced to engage in both oral and written discourse in order to compete successfully. Skeldon and Swales report the seminar to have been successful, both affectively and linguistically.

Second, Edge and Samuda (1980) have argued convincingly for what they call language teaching `methodials'. They point out that traditional language teaching methodology, even in more discourse oriented approaches like notional-functional teaching, is organized through a strategy of `Presentation, Practice, and Perfection'. The teacher initially presents a model of the relevant language form or function; the student then practices production of similar language material, polishing and perfecting performance over time. Methodials, consistent with the premises of the communicative approach, are organized through a different strategy, one of information `Search, Selection, and Synthesis'. The teacher creates a problem setting in which some of the information needed to solve the problem is unavailable. The student must search for this information, select the appropriate information for each stage of problem solving, and synthesize the information into a coherent response to the problem.

Finally, Jones (1982) represents a general guide to the use of simulations in language teaching. Jones provides generally good suggestions on selecting, adapting, and executing simulations in language teaching. However, he concentrates on simulations specifically designed for educational purposes (though not necessarily language teaching purposes). Crookall (1984) also provides a practical rationale for the use of non-ELT simulations in language teaching.

THE PILOT PROJECT

The simulation game: BUSINESS STRATEGY

The simulation used in the pilot project was Business Strategy (Avalon Hill: 1973). Business Strategy simulates competition among a group of manufacturing companies. Companies compete to acquire raw materials, manufacture finished goods, and sell these manufactured goods on the open market. Companies seek to maximize their worth and to avoid bankruptcy. In order to accomplish this, each company's executives must "analyze market conditions, take shrewd advantage of competitors' circumstances, and operate factories and warehouses at peak efficiency". In terms of communication activities, simulation participants must interact with fellow company executives, executives of competing companies, and with the game controller and banker.

The game is played as a series of twelve turns, each representing one month. Within each turn, players face decisions in each of six phases: (1) paying fixed expenses, (2) acquiring raw materials, (3) manufacturing finished inventory, (4) selling finished inventory, (5) making and paying loans, and (6) investing in capital improvements. Decisions made in these phases depend on market conditions provided through `business climate cards'.

The game is complex enough that it remains a challenge to participants, but is simple enough that it can be learned in only a few hours. The game also has the advantage of having been designed by gaming experts in consultation with business and educational professionals so that its pace is rapid and its representation of genuine business management situations convincing.

The simulation setting

Students of high intermediate and advanced oral proficiency were invited to participate in the simulation. Twenty-two students signed up for the event, and twenty completed it. For the purposes of this study, participants were compensated for their involvement in order to guarantee that a sufficient number would complete the simulation.

Eight Institute staff members coordinated the event, serving as game controllers and facilitators and providing instruction and support to the six competing teams.

The simulation was conducted within the physical facilities of the Institute. Each team was assigned an Institute office which was equipped with a telephone and tape recorder. The game controller and banker were located in an additional office. Two classrooms were also utilized for informal communication and for the debriefing session.

The simulation was conducted over two days for a total of twelve hours. On the first day, students met for about three hours for the initial briefing session which included a general introduction and instruction in game rules and procedures. On the second day, students met for nine hours which included the simulation itself and a final debriefing.

Pre-simulation preparation

Trial runs

Institute staff participated in three trial runs. These trials served several purposes. First, they allowed staff to assess the language level, in terms of vocabulary and student interaction, best suited for the simulation. In our simulation, students from high-intermediate to advanced oral skills levels were invited to participate, an assessment of desired language ability which proved to be accurate.

Second, the trial runs allowed staff to become acquainted with the game. Staff discovered which phases and aspects of the game invited more or less discourse interaction among the participants. They determined where during the course of the simulation additional language activities could best be inserted. In addition, they determined how long each phase of each game turn would ordinarily take. And, they identified specific areas in game play that were likely to cause confusion among the participants.

Adaptation

After careful consideration, three adaptations to the simulation were made. First, as this simulation was designed for native speakers, it was necessary to simplify the language of the rules.

Second, it was necessary to alter one rule regarding emergency loans. According to game rules, emergency loans could be taken out at any time during the game except during Phase 5, when normal loans could be requested. Not wanting participants to go bankrupt and drop out of the simulation, the rule was changed to allow the banker to extend an emergency loan without requiring a factory or other assets as collateral.

Third, it was important to control carefully the choice of business climate cards, which establish the critical market conditions for each month. In the first hours of the simulation, cards were selected reflecting average market conditions in order not to lose students right away due to inexperienced judgment. As the day progressed and student skill level increased, the market was made more competitive.

Language activities

The language activities which occurred during the course of the simulation fell into three categories: the natural oral discourse stimulated by the event itself; language testing conducted in order to gather some preliminary data to substantiate the benefits of the simulation; and additional exercises in written discourse.

One of the major reasons for deciding to use simulations in English language teaching is the amount of enthusiastic oral communication that occurs spontaneously among simulation participants. The discourse created by participants in Business Strategy is extremely rich. Participant language use includes a wide range of vocabulary, grammatical structures, and general linguistic functions. Lexical items include business terminology related to the buying and selling of finished goods and raw materials and their production and storage, as well as banking terms regarding capital assets, loans, and interest. Grammatical structures include virtually all sentence and clause level structures. Briefly, the linguistic functions in the simulation include requesting and giving information and explanations, agreeing/disagreeing, persuading, and interrupting.

In our business simulation, students were pretested and post-tested for their knowledge of business vocabulary and principles basic to the simulation and their ability to organize and write memoranda and business letters in proper format. The decision to pre- and post-test was based on the desire to evaluate the amount and type of language acquired through the activity. As Crookall (1984) points out, there is a need for research to substantiate the claims regarding the benefits of simulations for language acquisition.

The vocabulary test was constructed as follows. During the trial runs, key words and potentially new or difficult expressions were noted. A short reading passage was then constructed which incorporated this vocabulary. The vocabulary items were subsequently deleted, leaving blanks for the students to fill in with the help of a word list. This vocabulary exercise was given to students as a pretest during the briefing and as a post-test after the simulation.

Students were also pretested during the briefing for their knowlege of basic business principles crucial to the successful completion of the simulation game. The same test was given as a post-test following the simulation.

During the simulation event, students were tested on their ability to prepare business memoranda and letters on topics related to the simulation. In both cases simple writing samples were collected.

Two supplementary language activities were inserted into the simulation event. It was decided that no more than two supplementary activities should be inserted to avoid interrupting the natural pace of the simulation. The memorandum exercise was given during the morning after several rounds of play when it seemed that everything was progressing smoothly. The business letter activity was reserved for the afternoon.

In the memorandum exercise, students were asked initially to write a memorandum within five minutes on a given topic without having had any previous instruction on memorandum writing. Shortly thereafter, Institute staff provided each team five minutes of immediate instruction on proper memo organization and format and then gave them another memorandum exercise as a post-test. The same procedure was followed for administering the business letter exercise, except that ten minutes were devoted to the writing and instruction tasks.

Student briefing session

A three-hour briefing was held for all participants the day before the simulation. Time was first allotted for the vocabulary and business principles pretests, which could be omitted for future events. Following the pretests, 22 students were divided randomly into six teams or "companies" of three or four people.

Next, a brief general overview of the game was provided by a staff member. Students were then instructed in the game rules and procedures through lecture, discussion, and practice trials for each successive phase of the business game. This was done not only to acquaint students with game procedure but also to observe student interaction to help determine the best possible groupings for the actual simulation.

After the briefing, student groups were altered according to staff observations of group dynamics in order to achieve optimal participant interaction. Primary considerations in grouping included native language and personality. In particular, the more extroverted students were placed together so that quieter students would not be overshadowed but rather encouraged to collaborate and become more vocal. Attempts were made to separate close friendships, so participants could meet new people and establish new relationships. As all students were from high-intermediate to advanced oral skill levels, oral language proficiency was not a consideration in grouping.

Students were provided with a list of key vocabulary and definitions and with a set of game rules at the end of the briefing to take home and study as preparation for the simulation the next day.

Simulation execution

The simulation began at 9:00 on a Saturday morning with all participants meeting in one large room for a brief review of game procedure. As had been expected, there was some attrition and two students did not show up, leaving us with a total of 20 participants. Each was given a folder with copies of game sheets, a list of company offices and telephone numbers, a pad of legal paper, sharpened pencils, and a name tag. At this time, students were informed of their company groups and then allowed to adjourn to their offices.

The more authentic the space allocated to students is, the more realistic the simulation will be. In this case, each "company" was given its own office to help create a more authentic environment. The offices permitted business interactions to be conducted privately, yet because the offices were adjacent, student interaction was encouraged. Each office was equipped with a telephone, so students were able to call each other to check on bids, sell factories, form cartels, etc. Tape recorders were also placed unobtrusively in each office to record student oral interaction for later analysis. Participant anxiety about taperecording was removed during the briefing sessions by reassurances that the recordings were for research purposes only and not for assessment.

Game board sheets listing each company's assets were posted on a centrally located bulletin board to enable students to follow their competitors' business standings. The board quickly became a gathering place where students engaged in animated conversation regarding the market, bidding, and each company's financial state, while eagerly awaiting the posting of new information.

Bookkeeping was done by the "Bank", run by two members of the staff; however, in the future that arduous, but highly important, role will be assumed by an IBM computer using staff-produced software. This will facilitate business transactions while reducing the possibility of human error.

A support staff of seven instructors acted as runners between the bank and each company, requesting bids and providing information on procedure and company options. These roles could be assumed in subsequent simulations by students familiar with the simulation.

The simulation moved at a quick pace, which increased as the day progressed. Each six-phase game turn averaged 25 minutes; each phase then moved quite rapidly, averaging from three to five minutes. The pace of the simulation was set by the game controller who demanded timely responses from each company. Control of the pace of this simulation was crucial to its success.

The simulation continued until 5:00 with an hour break for a "business lunch" provided by the Institute, as well as brief pauses mid-morning and afternoon with refreshments. Since the action was both intense and fast, the breaks in activity and refreshments were instrumental in maintaining student energy and motivation.

The simulation ended by mutual consent of the competing companies after 10 simulated months, or turns. At this time, the Bank calculated the net worth of each company to determine its final competitive standing.

Debriefing

Immediately following the simulation event, a debriefing session was held for all participants. Post-tests were administered first. Then the final competitive standings were announced, which resulted in a great deal of mutual and spirited congratulating and commiserating. No bad feelings resulting from a company's final standing were in evidence.

Finally, staff and participants engaged in a review of the simulation. Suggestions from both students and staff were elicited and will be taken into consideration in the future development of this simulation and others undertaken at the Institute.

Results

Quantitative measures

Seeking to provide some empirical support for our belief that the use of business simulations in language training is beneficial to students, we constructed four tests which were administered to the group both as pretests and as post-tests. One test was a cloze test for vocabulary; the second and third required writing samples of business memoranda and letters, and the fourth was a multiple choice test on fundamental business principles.

For all four tests two statistical comparisons were made. First, the student *t*-test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference overall on a given test between the performance of the students before and after the simulation. Second, the scores were placed into two groups based on how each team finished (HIGH=1st, 2nd and 3rd place teams; LOW=4th, 5th, and 6th place teams). These scores were used in analyses of variance to examine whether game performance might in some way be associated with test performance.

On the vocabulary test, comparison of pre- and post-test scores reveals a highly significant difference ($p<.001$ on t-test using percentage correct as data) overall. Student knowledge of pertinent general business vocabulary clearly increased over the course of the simulation. Comparison of the high and low team scores (ANOVA) reveals no interaction between vocabulary test results and the performance of a particular team. What this means is that both groups show the same trend of improvement on the vocabulary test from pre- to post-test.

On the writing samples, comparison of pre- and post-test scores reveals again a highly significant improvement ($p<.001$). Students clearly improved, here with limited direct instruction, their ability to organize simple business memos and letters. Comparison of the high and low team scores again reveals no interaction between the writing tests and the performance of a particular team. Here, too, the students show overall a great deal of improvement over the course of the simulation.

On the business principles test, comparison of scores for all subjects reveals no significant change from pre- to post-test ($p>.25$). Taken as a whole, students did not show much improvement in their understanding of general business principles over the course of the simulation. However, comparison of the high and low team scores does reveal one interesting difference. Members of HIGH teams do show significant improvement over the course of the simulation ($p<.04$); it is only members of LOW teams who do not.

It should be made explicit that the pretest/post-test format does not provide genuine experimental evidence on the benefits of simulations for two reasons. First, we did not have a suitable control group. Comparison with Institute students who did not participate in the game would not be appropriate for (1) they are less interested in business in general, and (2) they and the experimental group would not have been randomly assigned to their respective conditions. Second, in the pretest/post-test format, observed improvements in test scores may be due to factors other than the simulation. In our case, the good results we see could be due, for instance, to the students' time commitment (12 hours) and not to the simulation itself.

Despite these limitations, the results we see are encouraging. It is clear that the students who participated in the simulation did show a significant change in their linguistic abilities after they completed the event. And it is especially heartening to see such change after such a short time. It is also extremely interesting to see that the students who performed best in the simulation competition turned out to be the students who showed the greatest improvement on the final business test. While this observation may turn out to be merely a chance happening, it still remains a very interesting hypothesis to explore.

Overall, we are pleased with the outcome of our simple testing. Given the duration of the event (12 hours) and the minimal amount of instruction provided, we did not expect to see significant changes at all. So, while we must conservatively point out that we cannot conclude that the improvement in test scores was due directly to participation in the simulation, we do believe that such an inference is reasonable and represents a worthwhile hypothesis to consider further.

Discourse performance

During the course of the simulation, each team was audio-recorded for a total of six hours. These recordings represent a valuable source of data on student volubility and fluency in oral production and on the social organization of their discourse interactions. Preliminary review of the audiotapes reveals the following:

(1) Students were highly engaged in oral production throughout the simulation.

(2) Students show a higher density of individually motivated response during the simulation than during even very good oral skills classes at the Institute.

(3) Students became more adept and comfortable in using the telephone.

(4) Reticent students were considerably more vocal than usual.

Overall, it is very clear from a review of the audiotapes that students were highly involved and active during the simulation event. If one of the goals of oral production activities is to stimulate students to attempt to communicate, to use their developing language abilities, then it is obvious that simulations can help achieve this. Our observations regarding discourse performance at this point are not conclusive for we report here only our subjective analysis of the taped data. When the transcription and analysis of the audiotapes has been completed, we expect to show empirically the differences we describe above between the simulation event and ordinary oral skills classes.

The affective domain

Even though we have no concrete, objective measurements to report, we do have two observations to make concerning the affective environment of the simulation experience and its aftereffects.

First, it is perfectly clear, even from the most informal observations, that the simulation day generated a genuinely animated and completely positive affective environment. Students quickly became caught up in the competitive spirit and the excitement of buying and selling. They saw the simulation as an excellent opportunity to improve their knowledge of basic business vocabulary and principles as well as their oral/aural skills in general. During the simulation, students commented regularly to teachers how much they enjoyed and valued the special event, and they also requested that the simulation be repeated.

Second, we are presently offering this simulation as the heart of an experimental elective course in business communication. Ordinarily, elective courses in the Institute setting attract from ten to twelve students. Initial response to the announcement of the new simulation-based business communication elective brought 24 students to the first meeting, a clear reflection of the enthusiasm generated by the original simulation.

All in all, in the absence of careful, systematic observation, one must be cautious about making strong claims about the affective setting of language learning. Yet, it is apparent to those of us who participated in the simulation that participants reacted to the event enthusiatically and that this feeling continues beyond the event itself.

IMPLEMENTING A SIMULATION: METHODOLOGICAL SUGGESTIONS

Choosing a suitable simulation

There are at least five points to consider in selecting a suitable simulation for language training: purpose, content, simulation design, student abilities, and logistics.

First, the purpose of the highly interactive, dynamic simulation we conducted was to provide students with an opportunity to exercise oral language skills they had been developing throughout the quarter and to provide an interesting, exciting change of pace later in the academic term, though such a simulation could also serve to facilitate student interaction at the beginning of a term. Care should be taken in reviewing simulations for these purposes to ensure that they invite significant levels of oral interaction. The only way one can be truly certain of this, of course, is to try out the simulation oneself.

Simulations can also be used for other purposes, such as language skills assessment or developing cross-cultural awareness. See Jones (1982) for discussion of how such simulations differ from the one we conducted.

Second, it is obvious that the specific content area of the simulation ideally should meet the interests of the students. Student interests should be determined through an appropriate, if brief, needs analysis, involving the students directly and their academic advisers if appropriate. Further, one should not assume that students will be interested only in simulations in their own disciplines. Our simulation did draw a number of students from areas other than business due, in part, to effective priming of interest by staff members.

In selecting a simulation, one should bear in mind that the purpose of a content area simulation is not to teach the subject matter per se, but to allow students the opportunity to communicate within the framework of the subject matter.

Third, Jones (1982) describes the three essential elements of a well-designed simulation: reality of function, a simulated environment, and structure. A simulation demonstrates reality of function if the participants are involved in solving problems representative of the `real world' with methods that would be ordinarily used in that situation. A simulation has a simulated environment when participants are sheltered from any adverse consequences resulting from their decisions. A simulation has structure if the necessary information and organization of simulation tasks are provided by the simulation designer.

Business Strategy, as one example, satisfies all three of these criteria. It demonstrates reality of function by requiring participants to make business decisions taking into account factors real executives consider. It has a simulated environment because no one loses any real money as a result of poor decision making. And it clearly has structure, for the game designer provides virutally all the information and organization needed to carry out the simulation tasks.

If these three design elements are present, appropriate functional discourse will follow. We recommend considering simulations designed by experts in subject matter disciplines. Simulations designed specifically for ESL students are often stilted and contrived, being simply elaborate role plays in which students are asked to assume roles which may seem too artificial.

Fourth, in selecting a simulation, the oral skill level of participants must be taken into account. Of importance is not so much whether students can produce target language norms in grammar and lexicon as whether they can communicate reasonably effectively in terms of specific linguistic functions and simulation duties. While it is true that students taking part in a simulation will help each other to understand aspects of language or the simulation itself, a simulation which is too far beyond the range of a student's language abilities will be a frustrating experience at best.

Finally, the logistics of the simulation -- time, numbers, space, staff, and cost -- must be considered. The amount of time available for conducting the simulation should correspond with the time needed to complete the simulation activities. (Simulations vary in length from a few hours to several days).

The number of participants required to take part in the simulation should be determined. It is better to have too many participants than too few, for one is bound to have a certain amount of attrition. And, in adapting simulations, it is usually easier to expand them for a larger group successfully than to reduce them for a smaller number.

The space for the simulation should be adequate and realistic. Simulations which call for an exchange of private information may require separate rooms. Cooperative problem solving could take place in a single large room. In both cases, rooms should be of adequate size so that participants can comfortably interact.

The costs of acquiring a simulation and of providing staff support for it should be taken into account. In examining staff costs, one must consider development time for the simulation as well as the actual time devoted to the simulation event.

Preparing for the simulation

Pre-simulation preparation includes the following: trial runs, adaptation, and selection of language activities.

It is essential that the simulation organizers conduct several trial runs of the simulation themselves before trying to implement it for students. This process permits organizers to determine linguistic needs and to understand timing and simulation procedures.

First, in regard to linguistic considerations, organizers should assess the language skills used and the minimum second language proficiency required for a lively and effective simulation. In addition, organizers should determine where to insert additional language activities that may be desired.

Second, organizers should should review how time was utilized during the trial runs in order to identify the time needed to complete simulation tasks and to get a sense of pacing. One should record specifically the time it takes for initial training in simulation procedures, the total amount of time required to complete the simulation, and the timing of specific sub-phases or procedures in the simulation. Our experience reveals that high-intermediate and advanced level students do not need significantly more time than the organizers. However, as the size of the participant group increases, one should expect that additional time will be needed.

Third, organizers should identify possible areas of student difficulty for subsequent clarification or adaptation. During the trial runs, organizers may become aware of ambiguous or unclear aspects of simulation rules or procedures, areas of particular complexity for participants (including lexical items), and specific strategies that lead either to success or failure for participants. These matters should be explicitly identified in order to permit adaptation or to anticipate areas where additional participant support would be advantageous.

We suggest that trial runs be conducted very carefully, with organizers taking extensive and explicit notes on time flow, difficulties in understanding procedure and strategy, and linguistic interaction.

Adaptations to a simulation should be made only after careful consideration. In all cases, adaptation should be minimal, for if extensive adaptation seems necessary, the simulation chosen may not be suitable. Too hasty modifications or deletions may detract from the smooth operation of the simulation or alter the reality of the simulation itself.

The purpose in adaptation is to ensure that a simulation can proceed smoothly and with an appropriate level of challenge to the participants. With this in mind, minor adaptations can help to simplify the simulation for participants new to the experience or the subject matter, or they can help to increase the challenge to more experienced or knowledgable participants.

Well-designed simulations will invite participants to engage in extensive and enthusiastic oral interaction. In general, additional linguistic activities are not necessary. Still, other language activities may be added to supplement this rich, natural oral communication if desired. Care must be taken, however, in choosing the types of activities and the best times to insert them as unobtrusively as possible into the simulation. It is important to remember that any activity, whether oral or written, must fit into the reality of the simulation. Activities which are inappropriate for the particular situation, should be reserved for the classroom and not forced upon the simulation participants, as they only interrupt the natural acquisition process and put a damper on student enthusiasm and motivation.

Conducting a simulation

The simulation must begin with a briefing session for all participants. One purpose of the briefing is to help participants understand something of the general purpose and intended benefits of the simulation in their language training. A second purpose is to provide both a general overview of the simulation and specific training in simulation rules and procedures. If the simulation utilizes teams or small groups, a third purpose of the briefing is to establish trial groups whose composition may be changed after preliminary interactions are observed. Finally, the briefing should be used to prime student enthusiasm for the simulation itself.

In conducting the simulation there are a number of essential guidelines to follow. One, all logistical arrangements (rooms, staff, refreshments, materials, and so on) must be completed before the starting time. Two, several rest periods should be planned and inserted at breaks in simulation activity or when participant energy level begins to fade.

Three, the simulation controller must ensure that pacing is maintained throughout the activity. It is essential that the controller not permit the simulation to drag due to a few slow participants. Four, if the simulation requires recordkeeping, the controller must maintain accurate records and the authority to resolve all disputes. Five, confusions, disputes, and ambiguities must be resolved immediately upon discovery and not permitted to persist.

Six, staff should be fully aware of simulation rules and procedures (and possibly strategy) in order to provide immediate support to participants needing assistance. Seven, staff must maintain a level of energy and enthusiasm equal to or greater than that of the participants. Eight, student energy and interest should be continuously monitored. The simulation should be ended before participants tire of it, even if this means ending it prematurely.

Finally, be prepared in spirit for the unexpected and prepared to act for the benefit of the participants and the simulation as a whole. Some errors, possibly major ones, are likely, and the controller should be ready to resolve them as equitably and as smoothly as possible.

It is good policy to include a debriefing session for all participants after the simulation to review what took place and make recommendations for future simulations. Such a session also provides a forum to discuss and resolve any hard feelings which might have arisen among competing teams. One must be careful, however, that the debriefing does not become a negative experience, allowing the simulation to end on a sour note. Students should be asked to point out aspects of the activity that they liked as well as those aspects they might like changed.

CONCLUDING DISCUSSION

In this paper we have tried to achieve two goals. First, we have described in detail the rationale, organization, and execution of a business management simulation in language training for ESL learners at the University of Oregon. Our results reveal that simulation participants showed some measurable change in their linguisitic abilities. In addition, the simulation obviously elicited a great deal of enthusiasm, motivation, and interest among the participants. We see either of these results as sufficient to consider simulations worthwhile.

Second, we have tried to provide some general methodological suggestions for those contemplating similar simulations for language training purposes. While it is not possible to provide great detail in these recommendations (for specifics depend on the particular simulation chosen), we hope nevertheless that these suggestions may prove helpful in organizing and conducting a successful simulation event.

The use of published educational or professional simulations represents a relatively untapped area for communicative language teaching. Well-designed simulations provide a wide range of realistic problems embedded in a specific and rich context which second language learners find challenging and stimulating. In the course of solving those problems, students quite naturally find themselves communicating in the target language, which, in the end, is exactly what we want them to do.

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STRATEGIC INTERACTION:
A PRAGMATIC APPROACH TO BUSINESS NEGOTIATION

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Introduction

Spontaneity in language creation in believable in-country settings is crucial to communicative competence and communicative performance. Towards this end, foreign language teachers should adopt methods that foster on-the-spot creative skills, i.e., "metaphor is a greater creative force than grammatical innovation" (Di Pietro, 1976). In order to accomplish this, specific scripting categories are proposed in this paper to be used in DiPietro's Strategic Interaction methodology (SI).

The focus of this paper is on scenario writing. Scenarios with options written out in script form, scenarios to be used in spontaneous or rehearsed role playing, scenarios to be used in spontaneous or rehearsed transactional "games", and a method for categorizing and critiquing scenarios are delineated.

Scenarios may be based on grammar, on the roles of the participants, on the transaction or negotiation, or on the information option in combination with the situational protocols demanded by the setting or context. Coulthard (1977), regarding setting states: "All speech events occur of necessity in time and space --sometimes it is one of the *defining criteria* of an event that it occurs at a specific time or in a specific place."

Scenarios based on grammar are well-known from traditional texts. The stress is on grammatical artifact rather than on a believable situation. For example:

A: What are you doing, Barney?
B: I'm writing a letter to my Mom.
What are you doing, Al?

A: I'm studying my English homework.

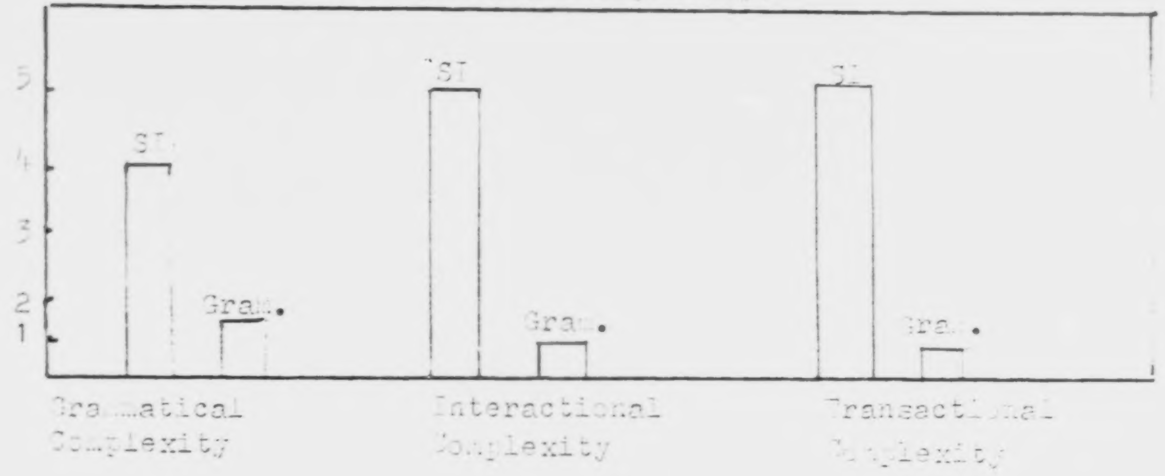
B: How's it going?

A: It's going well. How's your letter writing going?

B: It's going well. I'm just finishing now. I'm working on my present progressives.

Scripts or scenarios should be judged according to length of utterance, syntactic variation, and upon the information as communicative skill within realistic interactional and transactional bounds. See Salah (1983). The interactional dimension or role value as a pedagogical vehicle on this scale refers to how well a role can match up with and satisfy a particular student's personality. The transactional dimension or the value of negotiable aspects of a scenario as a pedagogical vehicle on this scale refers to how well a negotiable aspect can be utilized to create a dramatic conflict that will interest and teach the students. The number of syllables per utterance is chosen, for Japanese, as the rating scale for grammatical complexity (since this Strategic Interaction method is focused on performance). Lengthy utterances are simply more difficult to perform than are short ones.

Rating Scale (Complexity)



The above dialog would be rated as a grammatically based one. The grammatical rating, on an arbitrary 5 point scale with one as "easy," would be "one." In the above dialogue, the length of utterance varies from four syllables to ten. Judged on how easily a person could slip into Al's or Barney's shoes, the interactional level rating would be near zero. Judged by the negotiation or transactional strength, the rating would also be close to zero.

Textbook editors must realign their sights and begin to recognize that the 2nd language students, although naive in the L_2, are not noncommunicating idiots; thus, they can intuitively recognize reality or believable situations and can surely recognize that the above dialogue, although plausible, is not a replication of an actual conversation.

Additionally, when the grammatical material is presented in this way, the adult students' structural curiosity is saturated, while the younger students' curiosity is dulled. Out of the classroom, they have no incentive, motivation, or (in the L_1 environment) any opportunities for going out and practicing their conversational skill. I propose that the conversational skill be taught in the classroom, while the grammatical accuracy may be learned from any number of texts of the students choosing outside of class. When confronted with real situations that tax their skills and their egos on a regular basis, students will be motivated to not only improve their basic-life-skills in confronting the scenario's problems while using the language, but will feel a strong incentive to get out-of-class information in order to improve their syntactic and phonological accuracy. This out-of-class self-prescribed homework is, of course, readily available in many texts already on the market in the United States.

So, the situation may be reversible. Instead of studying the perfect grammar and perfect duplication of sound, and then complaining about their foreign language classes at home at night, students can share and discuss real life problems in class using the target language as a tool to achieve a satisfying solution and then study the perfect grammar, vocabulary, morphology, and phonology at night if they wish.

Scenarios with options written out in script form follow. Ideally, these should be written by the students, so that their own ideas may be incorporated into each script. However, at an elementary level, students need firm guidance, so for *some* teachers, scripts such as the following *might* be necessary.

Businessmen, active in negotiating sessions, should be encouraged to bring up ideas for simulations based on actual negotiating experience. The opportunity to discuss options, reassess linguistic, cultural, and bargaining strategies, and to vent frustrations is a valuable one that SI seizes and draws its strength from. Businessmen may need a model or sample negotiating session to generate their ideas, but after initial use of a model scenario, those experienced in negotiation should be able to contribute.

In the first sample scenario, an ambitious clerk wants to sell a junky ashtray to a shopper who has only $10.00 to buy two gifts, one for a man and one for a woman. This tension-creating device is clearly plausible and recognizable in any shopping area of the world.

Scenario with Options (Gift Shop)

Japanese Surface Forms

A: Irashaimase. Nani o itashimashō ka?

B: Betsu ni.

A: Hoshii mono ga attara yonde kudasai.

B: Dōmō.

B: Dansei to josei no omiyage de san sen en de kaeru mono ga arimas ka? (o sagashiteimas)

A: Kore wa dō des ka? Kirei na haizara ga
2A arimas. Kono mise no ichiban ii no des.

2B: Tabako wa suwanai hito des.

3A: Kochira wa pen seto des.

3B: Ji ga kakenai hito des.

4A: Sochira wa kabin (hankachi) des.

4B: Ii des nā (nē)
B: Sore wa ii deshō. (kamoshiremasen) (darō)
B: Sore ni shimas. (shimashō)
B: Sō des ne.
B: Hoka ni wa nai des ka?

5A: Sochira no wa dō des ka?
B: Mā mā.
B: Ikura des ka?
6A: Ni sen en des.
A: Sen go hyaku en de gozaimas.
B: Skoshi takai des nē. (nā)
B: Ja, sore ni shite kudasai.
B: Josei no yō ni shite, dansei no hō wa kekko des. (betsu no wa arimaska?)

B: Iie. Miteiru dake des.
B: Betsu ni.
B: Kekko des.

A: Ah sō des ka?
A: Ah (sō ka)

B: Kono hankachi (pen seto) wa ikura deska

A: Sen en des. (ni san yon go)

B: Okurimono yō ni tsutsunde kudasai.
B: Ikura?

A: Tada des.

B: Onegai shimas.

A: Hai.
A: Omatase shimasta.
A: Yoroshii (ii) des ka?

B: Hai. (Ee) Kekko des.

A: Arigato gozaimashta.

Scenario with Options

English Surface Forms (Gift Shop)

B: No. Just looking.

A: Tell me if you need anything.

B: Sure. Thanks.

A: May I help you?

B: I'm looking for two gifts for a man and a woman, but I only have ten dollars.

A: Come right this way. We've got a line of
2A beautiful ashtrays here. They're our finest.

2B: They don't smoke.

3A: Here are some pen sets.

3B: They can't write.

4A: Our vases (handkerchiefs) are over there.

4B: These are nice.
B: That would be fine.
B: I'll take that.
B: Hmmh.
B: Don't you have anything else?

5A: How is (do you like) that one?
B: So so.
B: How much is it?

6A: $8.00.
A: $6.00, sir.

B: That's a little high.
B: Well, I'll take it
B: That would be fine for the woman, but I think I'll look somewhere else for the man's. Do you have something else?

B: No, I'm only looking.
B: Just looking.
B: No thanks.

A: Oh.
A: Oh, (sure).

B: How much are the handkerchiefs (pens)?

A: 1000 yen. (2,3,4,5)

B: Could you gift wrap them?
B: How much would that cost?

A: It's free.

B: Great. I'll take them.

A: OK.
A: Sorry it took so long.
A: Do they look OK?

B: Yes. Perfect.

A: Thank you very much.

Grammatical Grid (Japanese) Gift Shop

B: Neg.

A: Conditional + polite command

B: Exclamative gratitude.

A: Polite welcome form and question with rising intonation

Declar + connector + question
B: Be V or pres. prog. V

A: Question

2A: Be declar. Substantive no.

2B: Neg. rel. cl. and be declar.

3A: Declar

3B: Neg. rel. cl. + Be.

4A: Declar.

4B: Declar. + tag - nā - Masc.
nē - Fem.

B: Declar + probability
Fem (Kamo shiremasen)
Masc (darō)

B: Do form (Let's form)

B: Affirm + tag + falling intonation

B: Question

5A: No as substantive + Be question.

B: Exclam. + falling inton.

B: Question

6 A: Number + Be

A: Number + Be + polite ending.

B: Be + Tag

B: Exclam + polite command

B: Declar + Do + connector + Be (or question)

B: Neg + pres. prog.

B: Neg.

B: Declar + falling intonation

A: Exclam + question + falling inton.

A: Exclam. + fall inton.

B: Question

A: Declar.

B: Polite command

B: Question

A: Declar.

B: Request.

A: Exclam. affirm.

A: Polite past tns V.

A: (Polite) question.

B: Exclam. affirm.
Declar + mid-inton.

A: Polite past tns.

Interactional Grid for Japanese

A: Shop Clerk, obeying social norms with customer.

B: Plays informative customer role.

B: Minimal reciprocation through negation

A: Project polite request in same role.

B: Polite minimal recognition of role.

A: Guide Role

B: Accepting role play separate for male and female Japanese

A: Acceptance

B: Asking further info

A: Informative role
Descriptive

B: Rejection + more info asked for

A: Inform role

B: Accepting role

A: Descriptive Role

B: Attacks articles
Attacking role
Contestant role

A: Rejection

B: (leaves store)

B: Customer not wishing to have clerk interact
Superior air

A: Clerk, personal feeling comes through. Inferior role recognized

B: Curt request role as superior.

A: Politely informing as inferior.

B: Superior
Curt command/request form

A: Subordinate compliance

B: Superior reciprocation

A: Role of polite acknowledgement as subordinate.

Japanese Transactional Grid

A: Polite Welcome. Polite opening to sell.

B: Opening is rejected.	B: Acceptance of opening		B: Opening rejected.
A: Protocol terminating request	A: Soft-sell strategy	A: Hard-sell of junky ashtrays (garish handkerchiefs)	A: Rejection taken personally (wants others to feel sorry) (or feels sorry for self)
B: Protocol terminating reply	B: Acceptance + suppliance	B: Counter-attack	B: Commander's request.
	A: Informing in order to sell	A: Counter-attack hard sell	A: Simple info -- hurt inferior
	B: Information asking to accept or reject sale	B: Rejection (Action)	B: Superior's command
	A: Informing in order to sell		A: Inferior compliance appeal to superior's patience by ritualized expression -- Superior acceptance
	B: Acceptance		B: Inferior's ritualized expression.

For the above gift shop scenario, the rating would be based on the interactional and transactional levels. the utterance length rating of the Japanese for American students ranges from elementary two-syllable utterances to thirteen syllables in the left and right columns, to intermediate level utterances in the center columns of up to twenty syllables; so,the ratings would range from one (two syllables) to three (thirteen syllables) to four (twenty syllables). The syntactic complexity ranges from "Domo" to "Hoshii mono ga attara yonde kudasai." Refer to G-Grid for the grammar notes.

On the interactional level, this is relatively easy, since it is recognizable as a real situation and the student can see the real choices available. Picturing oneself in a Japanese gift shop is certainly possible, so a rating of three is just.

On the transactional level, the negotiations may be very strongly played or they may be subtly underplayed according to the personalities of the students involved. Since the transaction may be easily recognized, played to the hilt, and judged as to who "won" or "lost," this rating would be a two or three.

A scenario such as this is analogous to many business discussions and helps illuminate where cultural barriers might be erected, such as the extremely polite, seemingly apologetic nature of the Japanese salesperson.

In this SI method, the classroom time is divided into three segments: rehearsal, performance, and debriefing. The rehearsal stage is for small group formation for discussion of role assignment, development of transactional strategies, and practice of words, phrases, and sentences provided by the group members and the teacher. In this stage new vocabulary, syntax, and pronunciation can be rehearsed. In addition, learners can share their strengths, learn from the teacher, and write their scenario.

In the performance stage, the conflicts in the different roles and factors involving the bargaining should be apparent. These apparent differences create what DiPietro calls "dynamic tension". Within the performance, this tension can have a salubrious effect on memory and brings into play Krashen's notion of the affective filter, which may be high or low depending on how well each role fits each participant. The monitor underuser may be the most effective performer in this stage.

In the third segment, debriefing, the students have an opportunity to satisfy their monitors, in Krashen's (1981) sense of the term, by discussing the effective and ineffective aspects of the scenario. Each student can ask anything about whatever detail, grammatical, semantic, lexical, or cultural, is bothering him. By allowing for different learning styles (monitor overuse or underuse and affective needs) to function in each of the three stages, SI tries to accommodate a wide range of personalities and to make each learner's experience richer.

In the following apartment inspection scenario, the idea was conceived as a result of the author's own experiences in Japan and in a recent experience in subletting an apartment in Newark, NJ to Arab students. In those experiences, the informational, interactional, and transactional grids were made apparent by the information exchange, the role playing of native host-owner and foreign-guest-renter, and the negotiation of complaints, maintenance, and price. While showing the apartment to the Arab E.S.L. students in the University of Delaware English Language Institute, it became obvious that they did not know how to go through an apartment or how to ask questions of the owner. They could only say, "Nice."

In Japan or the United States, added tension is apparent when the real estate agent is prejudiced towards the nationality of the renters. My wife and I experienced that prejudice in central Japan. It is likely that Arabs could experience a different kind of prejudice from Jewish landlords, not to mention WASP landlords. This conflict, creating dynamic tension, may be resolved through the use of multiple options, a few of which are delineated below.

Scenario with Options (Apt. Inspection)

Japanese Surface Forms

(naa)
B: Kitanai des ne.

Ammari ski janai(des)ne.
HaiRitakunai.
Hairanai hō ga Ii des.
Kaerimashō.
Minaide Kaerō.

A: Doshite? Nani ka warui (no)
des ka? (Doshitandes ka?)

B: Kitanasugimas. (Kitanasugiru.)
Pačio ga chiisasugimas.(ru),(des)
(niwa), (mado), (genkan)
Mado ga sukunasugimas.(ru), (des)
" " takusan " (Ō) " "
Kurasugimas. (ru), (des) ne
Naka wa kurai no des. (Kurai des naa)
A: Sore wa sō desuga naka wa hontō ni
kirei des. (akarui) (hirai) (ōkii)
Ki ni iru to omoimas.

B: Kekko des. Kaerimashō. (Ii des.
Kaerō.) Betsu no tokoro e ikimashō.
(Betsu no apato o mirō.)

A: Saa, apato K-seben e ikimashō.
Maa, " " ni itte mimashō.

A: Ohairi kudasai. Kore ga genkan des.
(Haite.)

B: Kutsu o nuganakereba ikemasenka?

A: Ee.(Hai) Ware ware no shukan des.
Kono kutsu-bera dōzō.

B: Kutsu o nugukoto ga kirai des.
Fuben des.

A: Oheya o mimashō.
" ni hairimashō.
Ii des na. (ne)

Kirei da nāā.(des nē)

B: Demō, kutsushita ga kitanaku
narimasenka?
(narimaska?) (naranai ka)

A: Sō demo arimasen. Nihonjin
wa uchi o itsumo kirei ni shimas.

B: Kabi to sakana no nioi ga shimasu gā

A: AA, sō deska? Nantonaku wakarimasen.
Sono hazu wa arimasen.

B: Ah sō deska. Kaerimashō!
Mō takusan des.

A: Hai. Sulipa dōzō.

B: (Kore wa) dōmo (arigatō).

A: Oheya o mimashō ka?

B: Okē. Kore wa imá des ka?

A: Sō des ne. Imá to shokudō to shinhitsu o kaneteimas. (des)

B: Dō iu imi des ka?

A: Nihonjin wa hitotsu no heya de
tabetari asondari netari shimas.

B: Beddo wa doko ni arimaska?

A: Beddo wa kore des. Futon to iimas.
Tatande oshiireni iremas. Naka o
mite kudasai.

B: Hai. Wakarimashta. (Wakarimasen.)

Scenario with Options

English Surface Forms

Apartment (House) Inspection (1)

B: This is filthy. I don't like the look of it. Let's not go in. Let's turn back.

A: What's wrong?

B: The front lawn isn't big enough.
The patio is too dirty.
The garden isn't clean.
There aren't enough windows.
(Too many) It's too dark.

A: But the inside is very nice. You'll love it.

B: No thanks. We'd better go.

A: Well, let's visit Apt. K-7 then.

A: Come on in. This is the entrance hall.

B: Do we have to take our shoes off?

A: Yes. It's our (the Japanese) custom. Here, let me help you with this shoe horn.

B: I don't like to take my shoes off. It's a nuisance.

A: Let's go into the front room. Nice, isn't it?

B: Well, won't our socks get dirty?

A: No, Japanese keep their homes immaculate.

B: Smells musty to me. Sort of a fishy odor.

A: Really? Oh, I don't know why. (You must be imagining it.)

B: No, I don't think so. Let's get out of here. I don't care to see any more apartments.

A: Yes, here are your slippers.

B: Thank you (very much).

A: Shall we go in the main room?

B: O.K. Is this the living room?

A: Well, it's the living, dining, and bed room.

B: What do you mean?

A: We Japanese eat, relax, and sleep in the same room.

B: Where are the beds?

A: They are just mattresses that are folded up and put away in the closet. Look in here.

B: Oh, I see. (I don't understand.)

Grammatical Grid for Apartment Inspection (1)

B: Declar. + tag.
Neg. + tag.
Neg. + "want"
Neg. + suggestion.
Let's form.
Neg. + V + connector + colloquial
Let's form.

A: Questions + rising intonation

B: Adj. + "too much" V.
N + Adj. "too much" V.

A: Declar + connector of contrast "ga"
+ "Ki ni iru" idiom.

B: Negation by falling intonation of
declar. Let's form.

A: Exclam. + Let's form or V + connector
+ Let's form.

A: Polite command. Declarative

B: Negative question + necessity

A: Possessive + Declarative

A: Declar. + offer (DŌZŌ)
Acting as verb. (please)

B: Nominalization of verb + declar.

A: "Let's" form + declarative + tag.
optional "O" for fem. + ne

B: Negative question + Adj.
connector

A: Neg. declar. (+ connector)
+ declar.

B; Double adj. + declar. + particle

A: Exclam. + question. Idiom
"nantonaku" + neg.

B: Question form exclamative with
falling intonation. "Let's"
form. Declarative + particle.

A: Exclam. + dōzō as V.

B: Expr. of gratitude.

A: Let's form + fem "o" option.

B: Exclam. Question form.

A: Affirm. + tag. 3 subj. + Be
or pres. prog. V.

B: Question.

A: V connector "tari" + shimas "do"

B: Question.

A: Declar. V + connector
polite command.

B: Exclam. past tns V. (pres. tns. ne

Japanese Interactional Grid

B: Rejecting role -- as judge.

A: Countering questioning role

B: Countering response role

A: Acceptance role change and counter.

B: Rejecting role.
Holds role as judge.

A: Acceptance role + holding role as agent-guide.

A: Social norms in real estate agent role of requester.

B: Questioning -- obeying social custom role -- as a foreigner.

A: Judge role + supplicant role

B: Rejecting counter role as judge

A: Return to agent - supplicant - guide role

B: Continuance of rejecting role as judge

A: Defense -- counter to judge role

B: Countering rejection continuance as judge

A: Rejecting role -- given up agent + com. suppliant role in exasperation

B: Rejecting judge role
Commanding.

A: Supplicant role

B: Applicant obeying social norms

A: Guide role

B: Customer role

A: Guide informant role

B: Customer--foreigner role

A: Japanese informant role

B: Customer role

A: Japanese + agent role

B: Complying nonjudgmental customer role.

Japanese Transactional Grid

B: Request rejected
Counter - strategy

A: Questioning strategy
(to keep door open)

B: Alternate Counter-strategy
Avoidance to terminate

A: Acceptance strategy
Avoidance of termination

B: Rejecting -- Termination

A: Acceptance + further door-opening strategy to sell.

A: Polite request + information
in order to sell (ultimately)

B: Avoidance strategy

A: Rejection of Avoidance
+ offer to ameliorate rejection

B: Counter-rejection.

A: Counter by ignoring rejection.
Request for positive reinforcement.

B: Maintaining of rejection.

A: Directly addresses rejection
problem with informative
counter strategy.

B: Counter rejection to maintain
avoidance strategy.

A: Rejection of avoidance strategy
switch from informative to attack
personal judgment.

B: Rejection of agent -- terminating
strategy.

A: Alternative to avoidance
offered.

B: Protocol response.

A: Request to show -- initiate
a selling strategy.

B: Info request to continue
transaction.

A: Info granted as selling agent.

B: Questioning for more (cultural)
info to maintain transaction.

A: Cultural info given.

B: Question -- to get positive
reinforcement.

A: Reinforcement given
Guide strategy to sell.

B: Question frame termination.

In this scenario the rating of utterance length ranges from one syllable to twenty-four syllables in the right-hand column, and from one to sixteen in the center column. The syntactic complexity varies from "have to," a ten syllable utterance "nuganakereba ikemasen." to "Ee"(yes). A rating of 4 is probable.

In the interactional dimension, it is certainly relevant and possible for a student to put himself into the shoes of the participants in the scenario, particularly so for the F.L.L. students. Accordingly, a rating of three is reasonable.

In the transactional dimension, the negotiations offer multiple options depending upon the personality traits of the scenario players. "Winning" and "losing" regarding the price and condition of the apartment can also be readily judged. A rating of three is appropriate.

Following this scenario is an expansion of this apartment hunting dialog into other emotional and bargaining avenues. The purpose of these added options is twofold. First, they should be written to heighten student interest. Students should be encouraged to write their own based on their own experience. Second, they should contain enough information to enlighten the students as to how phrases common in their language may be misinterpreted when put in the foreign language. Thus, they can learn and experience the metaphorical nature of a foreign language and how the transaction or bargaining is affected by the language and culture.

Scenario with Options (Apt. Inspection -2)

Japanese Surface forms

B: Kirei des ne (naa).

A: Sō des ne.

B: Demō skoshi semasugimas.

A: Sore hodo demo nai to omoimasuga.

B: Ofuro mo semai (chiisai) des ne.
Otearai mō.

A: Kore wa daidokoro des.

B: Akarukute kirei des ne (naa).
B: Kono gasu wa toshi gasu deska puropan gasu deska?

A: Toshi gasu des.

B: Aa so deska.
B: Tana ga skunakute fuben des ne. (skunai naa)

A: Koko ni teburu to isu o okeba shokuji ga ga dekimas ne.

B: Skoshi semakunai deska? Chotto semasugimas.

A: Sō deska?

B: Otearai to ofuro wa doko deska?

A: Kochira des. Ofuro mo gasu des. (ni arimas)
Nihon dewa otearai to ofuro wa wakareteimas.

B: Zuibun chiisa na otearai to ofuro des ne.
Shawa wa doko deska?

A: Shawa wa tsuite imasen.

B: Dame des ne (naa).
(Aa sō deska.)

A: Mado mo atte akarui daidokoro des.

B: Demō Kurai des ne (naa).

A: Tokyo no yasui apato ga minna sō desu ga motto takai no o mimashō ka?

B: Ee. Sō des ne.

B: It's beautiful, isn't it?

A: It is, isn't it?

B: But it's a little small.

A: I don't think it's that small.

B: The bath is also cramped, isn't it.
The toilet, too.

A: This is the kitchen.

B: It's bright and clean, isn't it.
B: Is the kitchen gas in propane bottles or is it city gas?

A: It's city gas.

B: Oh, really.
B: There are very few cabinets and that's inconvenient, isn't it.

A: If you put a table and some chairs here, you can eat in the kitchen.

B: Isn't it a little cramped?
(It's too cramped.)

A: Oh, really? (I don't think so.)

B: Where's the bath and the toilet?

A: This way. The bath has city gas, too. In Japan the toilet and the bath are separated.

B: It's a really small toilet and bath, isn't it? Where's the shower?

A: There isn't any shower.

B: That's no good. (Really?)

A: This kitchen has a lot of bright windows.

B: But it's kind of dark, isn't it?

A: In Tokyo all the cheap apartments are like this. So shall we take a look at a more expensive apartment?

B: Yes, we should. (I guess so)

Grammatical Grid for Apt. Inspection 2.

B: Declar. + tag.

A: Affirm. + tag.

B: Adj. + V-sugi.

A: part.-hodo + neg. + part.-ga.

B: Declar. + tag.
N + Part.-mo.

A: Declarative.

B: Connector -te + declar. + tag.
B: Choice question.

A: Declar.

B: Affirmative question.
B: Neg. + -te + declar. + tag.

A: Conditional -ba + declar. +tag.

B: Neg. + question. Declar. + sugi.

A: Affirm. question.

B: Question + double subj.

A: Declar. + Declar. + Pres prog. V.

B: Declar. + tag. + question.

A: Pres. prog. V + neg.

B: Declar. + tag. (Affirm. quest.)

A: Connector -te + declar.

B: Declar. + tag.

A: Declar. + ga + no as substantive
Let's question.

B: Affirm. + agreement.

Interactional Grid Apt. Inspection-2

B: Satisfied patient-customer role.

A: Accepting Agent role.

B: Judge-complainer role.

A: Agent-pacifier role.

B: Complaining patient role.

A: Guide role as agent.

B: Pacified patient role.
B: Questioning information seeker role.

A: Response as informant-guide.

B: Response according to social norms.
B: Unpacified patient role.

A: Informant-guide role.

B: Questioning unpacified patient.

A: Response according to social norm.

B: Questioning as patient.

A: Guide role + cultural informant.

B: Unpacified patient role.
Questioning role.

A: Guide role.

B: Patient as judge role.

A: Guide informant role.

B: Complainer-patient role.

A: Informant role and guide as questioner.

B: Role of patient yet to be satisfied.

Transactional Grid Apt. Inspection-2

A: Information in order to sell strategy.

B: Acceptance strategy.

A: Agreement.

B: Complaint strategy.

A: Rejection of complaint.

B: Rejection strategy.

B: Agreement.

B: Questioning alternatives strategy.

A: Alternative given.

B: Acceptance.

B: Complaint Strategy.

A: Avoidance Strategy.

B: Rejection of Avoidance.

A: Questioning of Rejection.

B: Avoidance.

A: Return to Information strategy.

B: Complaint strategy.

A: Information strategy.

B: Rejection strategy.

A: Additional info to sell given.

B: Complaint strategy.

A: Amelioration of complaint and avoidance question.

B: Acceptance strategy to maintain power

For this second set of options for the apartment hunting scenario, the utterance length varies from one to twenty-five syllables. The syntactic complexity is similarly varied from one syllable "Ee" (yes) to "sore hodo demo nai" (It's not that (small)). A grammar rating of 4 is again probable.

In the interactional and transactional levels, students may make infinite adjustments to the wording of the complaints, rejections, and compliant talk to mold the scenario language to their own particular mood. Thus, a rating of three or potentially four for both dimensions is reasonable. An interactional rating of 5 for a scenario is reserved for the role that fits a player's persona like a glove. Similarly a five for the transactional rating would be reserved for the scenario that was tailored for a particular group of students and generated much new knowledge of bargaining and of how to get what they want within the target culture.

Scenarios to be used in spontaneous role-playing or with previous rehearsal include the following sixteen scenarios.

Traffic Accident. (Advanced Scenario)

Many young Americans have been involved in traumatic traffic accidents by the time they enter foreign language courses in universities. Their inner desires related to what they really wanted to do in their own accidents to resolve that trauma to their satisfaction might be brought out. "Your wife has car accident -- can't speak English -- calls you up -- you rush to scene and then what do you say? Police officer says she made an illegal turn. Mr. S. says she is at fault. Witnesses, too. She says Mr. S. was speeding and not paying attention to her turn signal. He says it wasn't on.

He's very adamant. She can't talk back due to her non-native English."

Body Shop.

S. takes his car to three unscrupulous body shops. S. wants the highest estimates possible -- they want the insurance company business -- so want to keep the price somewhat low. He doesn't intend to fix his car -- just to pocket the cash. Option 1: Offer bribe to get high estimates. Option 2: Talk up the poor handling, extreme damage to frame -- affluence of other driver and her insurance company. Auto mechanic does what? Takes bribe? Gives high estimate but charges fee? The car repair scenario can show students how to manipulate language so they know they won't be cheated when up against a mechanic-crook.

Settlement Strategies (for Oil Sheiks!)

How to talk with owner of home you're going to buy. How to complain about broken things that must be fixed before you buy it. Owner doesn't want to fix anything for you -- thinks you're stealing it from him.

Telephoning an Owner

How to call up former owner and ask about things broken that you just found out about. You say this apartment or home is dirty, noisy, has stinky kitchen and toilet, etc. The owner says that he'll fix it all. You start to move in -- find it's not fixed -- what do you say?

Job Interview Strategies

You want job in Personnel Department. Personnel interviewer wants to leave his position but hasn't told anyone yet -- [illegible] can't tell you. On a grammatical level, this scenario can teach introductions and teach one how to talk about oneself. In the interactional dimension the social norms and role play behavior of the applicant responding to power are well defined. In the transactional dimension, request strategies of denial, acceptance and commiseration are readily available for use by students.

Travel Agent

You only have $300.00 -- you want to get to San Juan and back in two weeks -- you might be able to scrounge up more from friends, but you don't want to. You need the best bargain you can get but you have a slipped disc. Travel agent needs to make his quota with your account, but doesn't have a $300.00 flight at the moment -- he tries to delay you -- you change your mind. He has a special night rate on a cargo prop plane but knows it will be uncomfortable, especially for your bad back.

Restaurant

Old waiter in inexpensive restaurant is very nice, but slow -- he needs the work since Ronald Reagan cut off his Social Security. You recognize and appreciate the old man's genteel service but want speedier service since you are afraid you'll miss the beginning of the movie, but your wife doesn't care about the movie and [illegible] the old man.

Hotel

Since the larger rooms have been overbooked, the clerk must get you into a small, noisy room when you want a larger, quieter room which you had reserved quite a while ago.

Trespassing -- Court Scene

You and your friend trespass on grouchy rich man's lawn and take a dip in his pool. You are offered immunity from prosecution and are summoned to the court to appear before the judge as a witness, but the accused is a friend. Do you accuse your friend of crime and support the prosecutor or do you support your friend? Do you risk losing immunity from prosecution?

Boss/Employee

Boss wants employee to do more work. Boss likes employee, but boss should be demanding or genial? Employee wants boss to get off his back, but has a job waiting at lower pay. Should he quit? If he quits, will boss offer employee more money to get him back? What choice does employee make?

Apartment Neighbors

They play loud music -- you knock on their door and say what? They are getting ready for bed anyway but are slightly drunk and are not (or maybe are) in the mood for calming down a foreigner. The following can be rewritten in a transactional case as a winner/loser scenario.

Speeding Ticket

Police officer catches you for speeding. You know you were, but you think his radar was off. He knows it was off but is [illegible]-headed about it. He needs to catch you to make his monthly quota. You have to keep points off your license so you can keep your insurance down. This is also possibly a winner/loser scenario.

Broken Vase

You have spent the weekend in your roommate's parents' house and have slightly cracked an expensive vase. They haven't noticed it yet. Do you tell them or not, and how? If you don't tell them, they, six months later, mention it in passing. You reply, "Oh, that's terrible. How did it happen?" Or do you say, "I'm very sorry to have to tell you this, but I did it. I'll pay you for it."?

Rental Deposit

You try to get the apartment rental deposit money back from a poor landlord you respect and like very much. Superficially, he seems to like you, too, but is a little suspicious of foreigners regarding money. The participants in this scenario may be understanding or defiant depending on how the scenario develops.

Disorderly Conduct

You are accused of breaking the law-consumption of alcohol and disturbing the peace on Peoria's Main Street. In the first option, the police accost you but you convince them you're alright and shouldn't be booked. In the second option, you argue vehemently and are booked, go to court, call witnesses, hire an attorney, and let the judge decide.

Foreigner's Problems

Have the students jot down their own social, cultural, and daily life problems and put them, unsigned, into a "complaint box." Problems regarding dating, drinking, singles bars, strange music, apartment maintenance problems, financial problems, family problems, and automobile buying and upkeep problems could then be acted out based on the students own inner needs and ability to cope.

After the scenarios have been selected for suitability for each particular group of students, the "counselor" can give each pair of students who will perform a three by five card describing the situation from each point of view and the conflict or dynamic tension promptors. Each card is different and does not reveal the other's conflicts. Cues on the cards are complementary or conflicting to set up the dynamic tension. The students may be asked to perform the scenario spontaneously, be given one to five minutes of preparation, or may be given as much time as they need to prepare the scenario to their satisfaction. The performance follows.

Once the scenario has been presented, the class can decide in the debriefing stage what the roles were, how each person filled his role, go over the informational content of the scenario, and discuss the interactional and transactional levels. Disagreement as to the best way to carry out the transaction is to be encouraged. The students can talk about other options and act them out. This "debriefing stage" can include correction on all levels, phonological, syntactic, interactional, and transactional, but care must be taken not to overcorrect or to criticize a student's interactional or negotiating ability. If the students feel a genuine need for it, any manner of older metnodologies may be used in this post-performance stage, including pattern practices, pronunciation drills, contrastive analysis, and grammar-translation, but only if that's what it takes to satisfy the students' own perceived needs, whether real or imaginary.

In the in-country natural language classroom, debriefing could take place after the end of weekly negotiation sessions or after actual trips were made to a variety of stores: used furniture stores, used car dealers, bicycle stores, card shops, travel agencies, real estate agencies, notary publics, department stores, and newsstands.

These trips would require the cooperation of the salespeople in order not to become merely perfunctory exchanges. The creation of options lightens dynamic tension in a successful scenario; the student conquers a problem and the ensuing satisfaction assists his memory of the language used, "striking deeply" in Earl Stevick's words.

Striking deeply may also be furthered by scenarios based in the interactional level. Students may be able to place themselves within the roles more easily if the scenarios are written up with the interaction as the focus. This variation would ideally use the group dynamics already present in the student group with the teacher as another group member-counselor. If the group is at ease and is relatively open with each other, an interactional focus could be more suitable for the creation of genuine interactions at a linguistic level in the L_2 above that of the student's level, and could make the students feel comfortable while performing more difficult material. This is crucial from the perspective of Krashen (1981). The affective filter must remain relatively low for input (the comprehensible scenario) to become intake. The great stress on tailoring the role play to each student's personality is placed with this in mind in SI.

Transactional scenarios

Scenarios based in the transactional dimension would put the focus on negotiation, but would also contain a strong interactional component. These transactional grid-based scenario formats seem to be superior at creating dynamic tension, at least at the elementary and lower intermediate levels. For advanced students, freely produced spontaneous scenarios with tension promptors added by the counselor are clearly the best. An example of an intermediate level "winner-loser" framework follows.

Negative Options

Can't you make the price lower? Don't you have anything else? I guess I'll have to go somewhere else. That's not quite what I had in mind. It's a little too ---. (big, small, heavy, light) What's the best deal you can give me? Can't you give me a better deal than that? I guess I'll have to take my business to Sears. Oh, well then, can I charge it?"

Positive Options

"Yeah, I guess so. I guess I'll take it. How much is it? Oh well, I didn't think I'd get exactly what I wanted, (the price I wanted). I guess I'll have to settle for that, if that's the best you can do. That's high, but it seems to be the going price around here, doesn't it? That's a good price, isn't it? Ah. Uh-huh. Thanks (I guess) That's the only thing wrong, but that's ok I guess."

Positive Aggressive Options

"Boy, do I have a deal for you! You won't believe it. One time only just for you. You don't have to make up your mind now, but it may not be here tomorrow. You can order it today and then if you change your mind during the grace period (30 days), we'll refund your money. Sign right here. You don't have to pay a cent now. Have a nice day. God loves you! (and I do, too.)"

Other Negative Options

"So, maybe I could help you? Gee, I don't know. Maybe you could ask my manager. He's around here somewhere. Gosh, I never thought of that. Oh, you think so? Well, I don't know for sure, but I don't think we could get you a discount on it. That's impossible! Yeah, you can take your business elsewhere. That's the only thing you can do. Oh yeah, sure, you go right ahead."

Transactional focus scenarios that are not buy-sell transactions.

In Goffman's article, "Footing," (1979) a presidential news conference is reported from a *Philadelphia Bulletin* account. President Nixon is quoted as saying to Helen Thomas, a reporter, "Turn around.", when she wore a pants suit. She did and Nixon asked, "Do they cost less than dresses?" Thomas: "No." Nixon: "Then change." This was said to laughter from the other reporters-all male. Nixon maintained this winning negotiation through his power over the reporters. Based on what we know now about Nixon, this power he kept through transactional negotiations was one of his primary [illegible] in office.

Another transactional level scenario could take place in a singles bar. For example, the [illegible] could say, "Hi, my name's ---. What's yours? The addressee (female?) has multiple options, among them, "Get lost!" "My date's here.", or her name. If she says her name, "Can I get you a drink?" is a possibility, with "Thanks" or "No" or a brushoff as an answer. Another likely opening is "Wanna dance?", again with multiple acceptances or brushoffs as a result. Many options are possible depending on the [illegible] acceptativeness and negotiating skill of the participants.

A third winner-loser scenario that is not [illegible] and has a strong interactional component is a father-son conversation while repairing a car.

F: Get me the ratchet wrenches.

S: OK.

F: Now, hand me the screwdriver.

S: OK.

F: No, not that one. The Phillips.

S: Sorry.

F: Now, you hold on to the screwdriver as hard as you can, and
I'll turn the wrench, OK?

S: OK.

F: Hold on tight, dammit!

S: OK, OK, I'm trying.

F: No, you're not.

S: I am. I sure am.

This same power relationship can be seen in conversations with auto mechanics who never seem to give up their "hold" of expert knowledge, even when they know the car owner is right! This negotiating power, intimately connected with the role, creates [illegible] tension and furthermore can create sustainable [illegible] motivation on the part of the students.

Conclusion

This categorization of scenarios is based on the information load, the interactional value, and the transactional or [illegible] value. Previously, all scripts were based in grammatical artifact. Both students and teachers have paid dearly through hours of boredom and years of stultifying stagnation in their foreign language learning.

Strategic Interaction bases believable role-playing in real-life roles and transactional negotiating that packs dynamic punch; once released this gives satisfaction to the participants and transfers the L_2 learning into acquired, internalized knowledge. SI, in this author's opinion, is the most desirable path yet devised towards acquiring languages while at the same time expanding cultural knowledge, especially knowledge of negotiating pragmatics.

The author sincerely hopes that this paper will further the development and dissemination of Strategic Interaction, the best way of many ways discovered so far.

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PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT FOR SPECIAL PURPOSE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CULTURE COURSES

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In their book, *International Business Blunders*, Ricks, Fu and Arpan recount the following incident which took place slightly over a decade ago:

> A major U.S. manufacturer of mixed feed and poultry was interested in establishing a market in Spain, and preliminary market studies corroborated the existence of sufficient demand for the firm's products. Despite advice to the contrary from local businessmen, the firm established a wholly-owned subsidiary. The factory was promptly constructed and equipment was brought in; a skilled technical staff assisted in setting up the operation, and supplies of raw materials were arranged. The product rolled off the line, but as had been warned, the firm was unable to sell its products. Only then did the parent firm fully understand the situation in Spain. The poultry growers and feed producers had had generations of business relations and were a close-knit family; newcomers were effectively barred from entering the market. Had the company made a joint venture with an existing local firm, they would not have had the problem. To solve this problem of having no market for the feed, the subsidiary bought a series of chicken farms, only to face another disaster: They had no one to buy their chickens. A report indicated at last contact, the subsidiary was busy buying restaurants in Spain.[1]

Indeed, it would appear from this occurrence that the U.S. executives of this company literally counted their chickens before they hatched and were totally ignorant of both Spain's business and social customs and values. They expected to succeed with their enterprises but had no knowledge nor understanding of *lealtad* ("loyalty"), *personalismo* ("personalism"), and *honor* ("honor"), concepts observed so steadfastly by Hispanics and so crucial to business relations with them, and they resisted attempts to conduct business in any way other than the American way.[2] This firm, however, was not the only one to which, nor Spain and the commercial sector the only places where, such faux-pas have been made. Ricks cites many more examples of transcultural business blunders, while others like Mireya Pérez Erdélyi, refer to similar misunderstandings in the health science and political fields.[3] To be sure, all these misinterpretations were due to Americans' unawareness of linguistic or cultural differences and could have been avoided if U.S. personnel were more knowledgeable of foreign languages and, especially, sensitive to foreign peoples and cultures.

A society's culture has tremendous influence on the lives of its people.[4] It affects how the latter think, feel, and behave, and, along with a common language, it serves to bring individuals together and unite them. It also indicates a great deal about a people's manner of living and thinking and is the key to discovering what is unique about a particular community. Not to be familiar with nor understanding of a culture is detrimental to all those involved in intercultural communication or activity. Such ignorance and lack of empathy create barriers to friendly, productive and mutually beneficial dealings between individuals and nations, and yield to antagonisms and prejudices. In spite of this, many Americans of all walks of life have given little importance to cross-cultural awareness and senstivity, and have given even less support to intercultural training or education, the means by which such knowledge and understanding is transmitted. Indeed, in a well-documented study of American business, Margaret Inman reports that most corporations do not see the immediate relevancy of studying a foreign language or learning about other cultures, and states that only 38% of the firms surveyed have cross-cultural training programs which, according to another source, are generally inadequate as far as instruction is concerned.[5] With the report of the President's Commission on the state of foreign language and international studies and the efforts made in these two areas by such concerned individuals and groups as foreign language educators and associations, this situation is changing. More and more business people and other U.S. personnel, including technicians, government officials, legal consultants, social workers, etc., are becoming more aware of the need for cross-cultural and bilingual or multilingual personnel and are lending their support to programs which will fill that need. Some of them have already recognized their shortcomings in the area of intercultural communication, and some, like General Dynamics, will not send any of their staff abroad without having had some cross-cultural orientation.[6] Moreover, the larger multinationals are particularly concerned with the latter and either run their own programs or provide outside ones given by consultants.[7] For the most part, these more recently conceived programs are more ambitious that those that preceded, but they still use the cognitive-didactic approach to training or instruction, merely providing participants with the most superficial information about foreign cultures.[8] Most businessmen would like get out of the training field and turn it over to institutions of higher education. In general, however, they find that most university or college intercultural amd foreign language programs are more inadequate than thier own.[9]

The primary focus and aim of this article is to propose and describe a special purpose foreign language culture course (hereafter referred to as SPFLCC or SPFLCCs in the plural) which will provide professionals who are working or will be working in bilingual and bicultural settings with a viable course of intercultural instruction. Specifically, it will outline a workable method for ascertaining the need for and the type of cross-cultural program most appropriate for the professionals to be instructed; 2) discuss the objectives and general content areas of such a model program or course; 3) indicate a possible course construct by way of a model syllabus, and 4) consider the types of instructional-learning systems or approaches as well as the techniques which are most suitable for an intercultural instructional program. Some consideration will also be given to course evaluation. Throughout, emphasis will be placed on defining the roles of teacher and student and special attention payed to instructional program design.

Before any work can be undertaken in the setting up of a SPFLCC, certain preliminary determinations must be made concerning the latter. The person in charge must ascertain whether there is a need for such a program, and, if it becomes apparent that there is, then they must see how this need can be satisfied and how the information obtained can be used to design a possible instructional program. They must be able to uncover from their findings the primary objectives of the course and to whom it will be directed, and they must have the proper information to determine the scope, format, and techniques most appropriate for learning. They must also be able to establish general course requirements, and they must have the ability to confront the problem of instructional level and evaluation. One of the seemingly most effective methods for making such determinations is via a needs assessment or, if you will, a marketing survey.[10] The latter, when properly conducted, will yield much information about the design needed for such a program.

The assessment itself is usually not a complicated process, but it does require some careful thinking and decision-making. Those in charge must reflect on the types of questions to be asked and how they will be posed, and they must decide whether the responses to these questions will provide data which will be useful in designing the program, that is, will they be "yes" and "no" questions or open-ended ones so that facts can be obtained, and will they yield information from which course objectives, content, instructional and learning approaches or techniques can be developed. They must also determine to whom the questionnaire will be directed and how it will be administered, and they must settle on its length and method of response. Moreover, they must obtain information concerning the respondents' foreign language background and ability, and they must have some knowledge of the latter's career objectives and employment status, the findings of which can be very useful in setting up learning systems. Above all, teachers must pose questions that will inform them of the needs, learning abilities and instructional preferences of the prospective clients. This information will be particularly valuable not only in organizing an effective program but also in achieving successful instructional and learning results. Once instructors have decided on and formulated the questions they wish to ask, they can proceed with the actual preparation of the instrument. However, rather than explain how this process is accomplished or go into detail about the specific types of questions that should be asked, of which there can be many, we have included as Appendix A, a model questionnaire which contains, we believe, many of the questions that should be asked and would solicit the kinds of information just mentioned. We will only say that it is directed toward college students and makes inquiries about their language and professional background as well as about their learning preferences, but it focuses particularly on their needs and goals vis-à-vis intercultural instruction. We also believe it can serve as a model or at least be adapted for similar use by instructors of SPFLCCs.

Once the survey has been conducted and the results or data collected and tabulated, a report, based on the latter, is prepared and studied, and recommendations made. Unfortunately, to date, no questionnaire like the one mentioned above has been published or discussed, and the one included here has only recently been administered at Gettysburg College with most of the results too sparse and inconclusive for any concrete detrminations to be made. The data that has been examined, however, seem to corroborate the findings of similar surveys which have been published and carefully studied and which reveal interesting information about both the intercultural needs of career-oriented professionals and the instructional programs required to meet the latter.[11]

A perusal of the results of these surveys and of the interviews conducted among professionals, especially business personnel, who work in intercultural settings, indicates a growing need not only for a knowledge of foreign langauges but also an understanding of foreign cultures. Peggy Schoonover, in her survey of the corporate world in Boise, Idaho, reports that the company officials she queried perceived a need for foreign langauge and culture training and that most of them attributed their failures in the international sector to a lack of personnel who are competent in these two areas.[12] Indeed, one company official "wrote that his company 'would be more effective' in foreign trade if we had more people with skills in foreign langauges and cultures, 'simply because we would have people with an appreciation for the thoughts, feelings, culture, habits, customs, and speech of those we deal with'" (p. 16). Other professionals interviewed or surveyed expressed similar views about the significance of languages and cultures in their lives and work, but, at times, many put greater emphasis on the latter, that is, culture, if training or instruction in the latter promotes cross-cultural awareness, understanding, empathy, and sensitivity. Such are the findings of Michael S. Tang who, in a paper presented at the 1983 EMU Foreign Language Business Conference, stated, citing the findings of a survey of Colorado's International Trade Community, that "roughly 40% of the trade firms sampled look for people who were proficient in either 'foreign language skills' (40%) or 'cross-cultural understanding' (43%) at least one in every ten times they begin the search for new personnel."[13] If professionals and others, who are or will be working and or living in intercultural settings, believe that a knowledge and understanding of other peoples is of such great value to them, what training would be most useful to them?

According to intercultural experts and instructors, as well as some career professionals, it is training that would meet the latter's cross-cultural and work needs.[14] More specifically, it is training that would 1) provide participants with an awareness of themselves and their culture, especially from a behavioral and social point of view; 2) focus on the customs, traditions, values, beliefs, attitudes, concepts, hierarchies, rules, behaviors, time and space relations, and on verbal and non-verbal communication processes of the people of the cultures to be studied; 3) examine and discuss the special and other pracices observed in the participant's professional fields; 4) present and compare the geographical, historical, socio-economic, and political development and realities of the cultures under consideration; 5) make use of foreign languages not only as the means of what is to be learned and expressed, but also as a medium for understanding what the people who speak them are like; and, more importantly, 6) it is training that leads to an awareness and respect for cultural differences. In short, it is training based on the culture of the small "c" variety, that is, one which seeks to explore and comprehend another people's way of living and thinking from a behavioral perspective, as well as one directed to provide participants with the type of knowledge, understanding, and sensitivity to function effectively in cross-cultural settings. Assuming that this is training appropriate and recommended for those working in intercultural situations, how does one go about providing it? By designing a program which takes the aforementioned requisites into consideration.

The designing of the program itself is fairly straightforward and involves several steps, the first and most important of which is the setting up and forth of objectives. The people responsible for preparing the course must determine what is to be taught and learned and why, and they must decide on the scope, nature, and outcome of such instruction. They must also know which aspects of culture they have to include and how these aspects will meet learners' needs, and they must settle on the number and types of items they wish to consider and in what way their mastery will lead to improved participant performance. This is no easy task to undertake, and its realization depends, to a great degree, on the findings of a needs assessment, a knowledge of the intercultural requirements of the various professionas, and the ingenuity and pedagogical savvy of the instructors who are designing the course. To be sure, no SPFLCC has been written from which some hypotheses could be made concerning the types of objectives most apppropriate for such instruction. Nevertheless, based on the results of surveys, we do know what elements must be considered to formulate such goals. We know that they must deal with self and cultural awareness, promote understanding and respect between peoples of different backgrounds, and we know that they should meet the participants' professional, social, and personal needs for all intercultural situations. We also know that these objectives should deal with certain content areas and that they should lead to improved cross-cultural relations and communications. Moreover, we know that they should make optimum use of the foreign language of the culture studied and that the language itself should be an integral part of the course. Happily, however, we do know what objectives for non-foreign language intercultural courses have been already formulated and even written about.

In most cases, the goals for these courses follow the guidelines stated above and are directed to specific groups of professionals, such as businessmen, health professionals, Peace Corps volunteers, government officials and/or employees. Only a few of them mention the linguistic aspect and, then, only peripherally, and all of them, as far as we know, are courses conducted in English from a multicultural rather than from a bicultural perspective.[15] In light of of the non-linguistic character of current intercultural program and objectives and given the compartmentalized nature of our foreign language departments at present, at least at the college and university levels, such objectives, while helpful as a guide, cannot be used in their current form. They must be restated, modified, and, in many cases, changed before they can be applied to SPFLCCs. Without going into detail as to how this process is undertaken and completed, we would like to propose our own objectives for a possible SPFLCC with emphasis on business.[16]

The goals we are suggesting for the latter are mostly behavioral in nature, purpose, and outcome, but they include certain cognitive and affective elements, especially with regard to the instructional orientation of the program, and even intimate a certain experiential approach to learning. There are seven such objectives and they can be stated as follows:

1) To expand the self-awareness of business professionals with emphasis on examining and analyzing personal behaviors and attitudes, so that they can recognize and overcome such negative traits as ethnocentrism, stereotyping, and prejudice, and adopt the more positive ones of impartiality, respect, empathy, respect, empathy, and honesty in intercultural relations.

2) To develop awareness among professionals of their own and another culture via a knowledge and understanding of cultural differences, so that they can be more tolerant of diverse life-styles and patterns of thinking.

3) To encourage among business personnel greater sensitivity to and keener judgments of situations and people of other cultural backgrounds, so that professionals can function with greater effectiveness in intercultural settings.

4) To add to the professionals' knowledge of the socio-economic, political, geographical, historical, and ecological development and realities of the foreign culture studied, so that they can better undertsand its people.

5) To develop and/or improve the intercultural communication skills of personnel, especially via a mastery of both the verbal and non-verbal language of the foreign culture, so that they can have better rapport with its popu-

6) To increase the interpersonal and organizational effectiveness of employees in cross-cultural situations through interactional and cognitive exercises concerning the business and social practices and customs of the foreign culture, so that they can work together to resolve common problems and meet common needs and goals.

7) To lesson culture shock and enhance the skills of personnel overseas, so that their total intercultural experience and assignments have positive outcomes.

As will be noted, these objectives are only aim and outcome-specific. They tell us nothing about the behaviors or learning required nor do they tell us how they are to be realized or evaluated. These are concerns of the more specific instructional objectives, that is, those that are formulated and stated for each activity undertaken by the student and which Seelye referes to as performance objectives.[17] Program goals, on the other, do provide a fairly good idea about the scope, nature, and type of training or instruction desired, and, they do establish the parameters and suggest orientations for the other aspects of program development--course content, structure, materials and resources, strategies, and evaluations. Indeed, they set up the guidelines and help initiate the next phase of course design: the determination and elaboration of content areas.

Knowing what items or subject areas to select and develop for SPFLCCs is a complex process and depends on several factors. As indicated above, it is contingent foremostly upon the specific goals assigned to the culture course of instruction. If, for example, one of the objectives requires that students acquire a knowledge and understanding of cultural differences, especially as they relate to behavioral and attitudinal patterns, then the content areas must reflect and treat these aspects. They must provide information about these cultural differences, and they must focus on the particular behaviors and attitudes in question. If, on the other hand, the aim is to provide the participant with an economic or political hisotry of a country during a specific period, the course must deal with these areas of concern. It must furnish material which will give consideration to the two topics and it must do so according to the stated needs of the student. Content selection and development are also dependent on the specific professional orientation of the SPFLCC. If the latter is designed for health personnel who are or will work with Spanish-speaking patients, then the content areas must refer to those aspects of Hispanic culture needed by these professionals. Similarly, if the SPFLCC is devoted to training migrant workers for jobs in the U.S., the topics to be picked must be oriented to U.S. culture. Thirdly, and lastly, the content for SPFLCCs will hinge on whether the orientation of the course is to be "culture specific" or "culture general." If it is to be "culture specific," then the themes will emphasize learning the language and acquiring information about a specific culture. They will focus on the meaning and uses of words and phrases of a particular language, say German, in various socio-cultural contexts and situations, and they will be concerned with the many different behavioral patterns, attitudes, values, concepts, beliefs, hierarchies, rules, and customs of the related culture, e.g., Austria. If, on the other hand, the course orientation is "culture general," the themes will stress the basic processes of intercultural communication without referring to a specific culture. They will treat such concepts and behaviors as perception, ethnocentrism, awareness, understanding, acceptance/respect, appreciation/valuing, selective adoption, adaptation, assimilation, biculturalism, and multiculturalism, and they will also concentrate on ways in which intercultural relations and communications are developed and enhanced. In most culture courses, the topics are usually selected with one orientation in mind, although in some intercultural training programs, such as those organized for Peace Corps volunteers, themes are chosen with both orientations in mind. However, to provide the prospective instructors with a clearer idea of what the content of a SPFLCC might be, we would like to suggest the following list or outline of possible topics, which are based, in part, on the objectives stated above for a business language course and, in part, on the topics suggested by such experts and professionals in the cross-cultural field as Nostrand.[18]

Possible Content Areas for SPFLCCs

I Self-Awareness and the Individual

A. Dimension of personality, self-concept, prejudice, perception growth and development, the unconscious, creativity.

II Cross-Cultural Awareness

A. U.S. culture vs. foreign culture

1. Culture: values, attitudes and concepts (time, work, authority, etc.),

2. Social Structure: the family, leisure-time activities, education, religion, demography, ethnic groups, political and judicial institutions, economy, communications, stratification, and social proprieties.
3. Ecology: attitude toward physical and social environment, housing, technology, travel and transportation.

III Professional Awareness

A. Concepts, attitudes, customs, and behaviors peculiar to intercultural business settings with emphasis on foreign and U.S. cultures.
B. History and realities of the foreign business culture.
C. Specific problems and conflicts between foreign and U.S. cultures in business settings.

As can be seen, this proposed content for the aforementioned SPFLCC possesses several distinctive features. First, it has a very special organzation. It is divided into three separate groups and is categorized according to three types or levels of social consciousness or awareness. The first group deals with self-awareness, while the other two treat cross-cultural and professional awareness. Each of these main categories are divided, in turn, into various subtopics of a more specific nature, but still related to awareness, and three of these, in the cross-cultural category, are broken down into further subgroups with topics of still a more specialized character. All categories, however, are interrelated due to the very essence of their classification. Secondly, each category and subdivision is social and/or behavioral in scope and nature. Each one deals with a specific aspect of human development, and each one, to some degree, reflects the activity of the human psyche in specific social contexts. Ecology, for example, deals with man's interaction with his environment, but it is specifically concerned with the human attitude toward nature and how this attitude will change or modify the latter. Thirdly, and finally, each content area is an important part of the total intercultural communication process and is geared toward increasing human knowledge and understanding. The self-awareness grouping emphasizes psychological behavior and focuses on recognizing and overcoming negative perceptions and attitudes, such as ethnocentrism and stereotyping, so that professionals can communicate more effectively and responsibly. The second content area--labelled "Cross-Cultural Awareness"--builds on the previous one and adds an important ingredient to the intercultural communication process: a knowledge and acceptance of cultural differences. It concentrates on both the native and foreign cultures and examines those aspects of culture which influence and condition the outcome of intercultural relations. The last category, professional awareness, is one we added given the ultimate objective of SPFLCCs--to improve the professionals' ability to communicate and relate effectively in intercultural settings. It consists of the study and practice of the specific behaviors, attitudes, concepts demonstrated in cross-cultural situations and refers to the problems and realities peculiar to the latter. It is a vital area of communication and one needed by those working in transcultural contexts.

To be sure, the proposed content model is very comprehensive. It lists almost all the topics that should ideally be covered in SPFLCCs and it does so from several interrelated perspectives. It is also extremely general. It states what the cultural aspects for inclusion are, but it does not reveal what the specific themes or culture might be. It does not indicate which particular values should be considered nor does it make known what culture is in question. It is only a theoretical and general model. Obviously, if all or some of these topics are to be treated realistically and satisfactorily in SPFLCCs, some determinations and refinements have to be made. The instructors designing the course have to decide, again based on the needs of the participants, what themes should be selected as well as for which culture or cultures, and they must consider how these topics are to be ordered and to what extent they are to be covered. They must also resolve the crucial issue of whether the different themes selected can actually be implemented as a component of a special language course, such as Business Russian or French or whether they would be better and more adequately managed as a separate program of study. Moreover, if a separate course is deemed more effective and only one such course can be realistically offered, how are the professional awareness content areas to be integrated into a special purpose foreign language course. These are concerns that will receive attention in the next step of program development: course structure.

Structuring an intercultural course or component is a crucial stage of program development. It not only determines the actual course of study, but it also influences the instructional format. In general, it consists of several stages, the most important of which are the sequencing of content areas, the selection of instructional approaches and materials, the setting up of learning objectives, and the determination of course level and requirements. It is a complicated and complex process and one which has been likened to syllabus preparation in its most comprehensive form, that is, preparation which just takes the just mentioned and other aspects into consideration. Moreover, it has received special attention from such intercultural scholars and practitioners as Hoopes, Casse, and Wight, cited elsewhere in this article, who have focused on the theoretical and practical aspects of the matter, and it has given rise to the interesting works of Nostrand and Ladu, who have provided actual cultural constructs for general foreign language programs.[19] Since no course structure or syllabus has been published or even proposed for SPFLCCs, at least as far as we know, we have included one at the end of this article, as Appendix B, for business professionals which is based, in great measure, on the objectives and content areas described above and oriented toward a comparison between U.S. and Spanish American cultures. To facilitate our discussion the syllabus is stated in English.

The syllabus itself is developed according to the structural guidelines indicated above and is divided into several sections. The first part or heading provides general information concerning the title, prerequisites, number, and level of the course. As will be noted, it is a three-credit third year course of "Business Across Cultures--Focus: U.S. and Spanish American Cultures" and has a two-year college Spanish language or equivalent entry requirement. The title was selected to reflect the overall scope of the course, while the language entry requirement and number of credits were based on the expectation that not only would the students be adequately prepared in Spanish to cope with the concepts, content, and linguistic aspects of the course but that the latter could be successfully complete in a three-day fifteen-week period. Indeed, as our experience with a course of similar content has shown, it can be.[20]

The following section lists the books for the course. Four are required and three are recommended, while three are written in Spanish and four in English. They are not very adequate texts for this type of course, particularly given the professional bent of the latter, but they are, at present, some of the few which marginally treat the themes stated above, clearly indicating the need for more suitable texts. Among the required texts, Lewald's Latinoamérica: sus sociedades y sus culturas considers various anthropological aspects of Latin American culture, particularly ethnic groups and social values, while Phillip's book, also in Spanish, deals with general areas of Hispanic society, such as social class, food, sports, etc. Miller's USA-Hispanic South American Culture Capsules, on the other hand, is the only manual that specifically compares various aspects of the aforementioned culture, while Mayer's manual considers the theme or Latin

American life-styles more fully. With regard to recommended texts, Miller's USA Mexico Culture Capsules, which again is contrastive in nature, as in Zanger's Exploración intercultural, but with more emphasis on a practical application of the material, and Stewart's American Culture Patterns, provide interesting insights and exercises concerning cross-cultural communication and interaction. Again, however, while most of these texts give some information and suggestions on the subject matter in question and how to approach it from a pedagogical point of view, none of them afford the material or focus truly required for SPFLCCs.

The remaining sections of the syllabus deal with course content, description, objectives, approaches, techniques, and activities, resources and materials, and requirements. The course outline or content is divided into four sections, an introduction and three awareness modules.[21] With the exception of the former, which provides an overview of the course--its rationale, objectives, content, and requirements, as well as background information to intercultural study and communication--, the three modules are very similar to those mentioned previously, although the content of each has now been sequenced according to various topics and time frames. Moreover, while the first module deals with self-awareness, an area crucial to intercultural interpersonal relations and communications but not very well known to foreign language teachers (this module can be presented via guest lectures from the appropriate departments), the last two are truly cross-cultural in nature and treat both the small "c" and business aspects of U.S. and Spanish American cultures. A general course description follows, which elaborates some of the concerns referred to in the "Introduction" section of the course outline, and, subsequent to that, a list of objectives is given. The latter are similar to the goals stated above and are directly related to the aforementioned content areas, but now they are more precisely stated as learning objectives. They prescribe the specific learning behaviors required of the participants (affective, cognitive, skills, etc.) as well as their purpose and contexts (self-awareness, cross-cultural, professional), and they also indicate expected outcomes. In the actual instructional or lesson-planning stage they will help instructors formulate the performance objectives which will accompany and guide all specific learning activities. The next section focuses on approaches, techniques, and activities, and describes the learning-instructional systems that will be utilized as well as some of the methods to be used to accomplish the course objectives. These approaches have been used in general intercultural programs, especially the experiential approach, and are considered the most practical and effective.[22] A general review of the materials to be utilized in the course and a list of the entry and exit requirements round out this course and, with it, this stage of program development. Two stages still remain in order to complete the entire process.

The instructional methods to be adopted for SPFLCCs constitute the next phase of program development. It is, perhaps, one of the most crucial phases since it is in this phase that the effectiveness of the course as well as the outcome of student performance are determined. It is comprised of two parts: the selection of the instructional and learning approaches and the setting up of teaching techniques. With regard to the former, and as indicated by the syllabus and experts mentioned above, most instructors of general cross-culture courses have opted for an approach which combines the cognitive, self-awareness/ behavioral and experiential ones. On the one hand, such a comprehensive method of instruction helps students develop in the cognitive and affective domains of learning. It provides them with an understanding of themselves and the people of other cultures. It gives them the ability to recognize and deal with their negative behaviors and attitudes as well as assists them in identifying those values or customs which are different from their own. It also encourages them to analyze cross-cultural situations involving misunderstanding, and it makes the sensitive to life-styles and patterns of thought which are different than their own. On the other hand, but in conjunction with the aforementioned approaches, it seeks to improve students' interpersonal and communicative skills in intercultural situations and contexts via experiential learning. It places students in real or simulated settings where a knowledge and understanding of the native and foreign language and cultures are required, and it forces them to respond to the situation or problem based on the cognitive and affective training they have received. It also obliges them to develop greater facility, fluency, and correctness in the language they are studying, and it enhances their expertise in those contexts which are professionally and socially related. Moreover, and equally important, it improves the students' ability to examine and process information as well as increases their problem-solving skills, a key element in all intercultural relations. Undoubtedly, these approaches are ineffective without the appropriate methods of implementation.

Teaching techniques are the key to the successful undertaking of any instructional strategy and program. They constitute the means for initiating the actual teaching-learning process and are at the center of all activities. They are decisive factors in what knowledge or skills are to be acquired and developed and determine, to a great degree, the ultimate success or failure of any course of study or training program. As far as general cross-cultural programs are concerned, many techniques have been suggested, almost all have been designed for multicultural courses and within an English-speaking framework. Nevertheless, with a bit of ingenuity on the part of the instructor, particularly in the lesson planning stage, several of them can be adapted for use in SPFLCCs. We will describe three of these techniques in relationship to the three awareness modules mentioned above and indicate how they have been used in general and can be used in SPFLCCs.

The first instructional technique, which has been frequently used in intercultural training programs, concerns self-awareness and focuses on affective and behavioral learning.[23] It is appropriately called the self-assessment inventory. Basically, it is a series of words or phrases which denote certian personal or interpersonal behavioral or response patterns which anticipate or are directly or indirectly related to various cross-cultural situations or contexts. Their purpose, of course, is to assess the respondents' attitude toward certain intercultural phenomena, such as ethnocentrism, stereotyping, "culture shock," etc. The materials for this instructional mode can be easily be prepared and written in a foreign language, but they should be done, if possible, with the assistance of a behaviroal psychologist, hopefully one who is bilingual and is familiar with intercultural training. The technique is usually undertaken on an individual basis, but for various purposes, such as the enhancement of communicative and/or interpersonal skills or behavior, it can be conducted as a small group or general class activity. Moreover, it can be employed in SPFLCCs to ascertain and improve student attitudes and behavior toward the foreign culture.

Another useful cross-cultural instructional student-centered techniques is the mini-drama. Developed by Raymond L. Gorden, a sociologist with extensive experience in the intercultural field, it sensitizes students to transcultural miscommunication via brief dramatizations which evoke an emotional response to particular behaviors in addition to providing cultural information. It consists of several short episodes, each of which gives one or more examples of miscommunication. More facts are made known with each episode, but the exact source of the misunderstanding is not discovered with the last scene. Each episode is followed by a teacher-led discussion which helps students uncover the cause of the miscommunication. Gorden has developed several such mini-dramas, including one titled "Cross-Cultural Encounter in a Latin American Bank," and employs them expose students to a "process of self-confrontation" which concentrates on both the affective and cognitive aspects and skills of learning.[24] It can be used in SPFLCCs in similar ways and, more importantly, if used properly, that is, in a spontaneous way with little student preparation and with stress on the novelty of the experience, it can be an excellent technique to encourage student participation as well as enhance the latter's analytical and other skills.[25]

The third and last technique to be described here is the case study. Developed by the Harvard Graduate Scholl of Business Administration as an education and analytical learning technique, it is extensively used in intercultural training programs and is highly recommended by educators for SPFLCCs, especially for those oriented in international business.[26] Briefly, case studies are analogues of actual situations written as close to reality as possible . They cite a series of happenings and present several facts in which one or more problems are posed and, based on all this information, ask the students to solve them. In intercultural processes, they function in more or less the same way, but they add the element of cultural differences and, if done in a foreign language, the linguistic factor. In SPFLCCs, they can be designed to help students develop a way of approaching situations involving another culture that will enhance their understanding of those situations, the people in them, and the outcomes that might result when one or another of the people emphasizes certain values rather than others. Moreover, they also provide an excellent opportunity for students to tackle simulated cross-cultural problems before they confront them. Some case studies in the professional area, particularly business, are already available, but others can be composed by using materials extracted from books, journals or other sources. To be sure, the case study and the two explicated above are the only three techniques that can be applied to SPFLCCs. Many more are applicable (culture assimilators, culture capsules and clusters, audio-motor units, role-playing, etc., including some in various foreign languages) and can be adapted for these courses.[27] Instructors will have to determine which are most appropriate for their course of study and find or create the necessary materials. Let us now turn to the final consideration of program development.

If setting up objectives is the most important stage in initiating the development of SPFLCCs, the evaluation process is the most significant in determining the latter's overall effectiveness as well as the performance of its participants. It is an extremely complex and difficult process, and one which requires a great deal of cooperation and expertise in a variety of areas as well as patience, hard work, and long hours. In general, it is measured against the overall and specific program, instructional, and learning objectives assigned to the course, and it is primarily concerned with assessing whether students and program participants have developed more cultural self-awareness and more competence in intercultural analysis and communication among other things. The process itself consists of seven basic and consecutive steps which can be posed via the following questions: 1) who does the evaluation, 2) for whom is it done 3) when is it done, 4) what is to be measured, 5) how is the measurement done 6) how are the results tabulated and reported, and 7) how are the findings interpreted and used. Instead of going into detail about the specific undertaking and realization of each phase of this process, about which several articles and books have been written,[28] we would like to point out some distinctive features of the evaluatory process for SPFLCCs, especially as it refers to the measurement of student performance.

Unlike the evaluatory procedures used in most traditional foreign language culture courses which ususally only assess students' cognitive skills, that is, their ability to acquire and retain mostly discrete facts, those used in SPFLCCs must evaluate other learning capabilities as well. In addition to knowledge, they must measure students' perceptions, attitudes, skills, and patterns, and, most particularly, they must assess changes in each if the primary aim of the entire program--the achievement of cross-cultural awareness--is to be validated. They must not only determine whether students have gained knowledge about certain aspects of a culture, such as its values, concepts, and customs, but they must also ascertain to what degree they have been able to process and use this information. They should assess, for example, how well students know the importance the French give to patriotism or the Spanish to honor and family, but they also need to evaluate whether the students have been able to recognize and understand these attitudes and concepts in various intercultural contexts, and, more importantly, whether they can react positively toward them. They must also measure the students knowledge and understanding of the semantic, affective, and cultural aspects of both the native and foreign language and how they are or can be used and interpreted in intercultural conexts. As can be expected, many methods and instruments have been described, prescribed, and utilized for such evaluations, but the reporting and disposition of the latter's findings are still scant.[29] Much still has to be done in this area. In spite of this lack of information, the evaluatory process is a very useful one. It can yield some interesting insights about cross-cultural instruction as well as indicate new and promising directions. It can also become one of the means by which a teacher learns and a student progresses and matures.

The various aspects of program development for SPFLCCs have been presented and explicated in this article. From the material discussed, it is apparent that to construct such a course of study some very specific and well-defined steps must be taken. They include: 1) the undertaking of a needs assessment and the reading of literature in the career and intercultural fields to identify the clientele and needs to be served as well as the program to be designed; 2) the setting up of general program objectives; 3) the selection and development of content areas; 4) the structuring of the course via syllabus preparation with emphasis on defining specific learning objectives and approaches as well as choosing materials and setting up general course requirements, 5) the determination of instructional and learning methods and techniques, and 6) the evaluation of the overall program but with particular attention to assessing student performance and abilities. Of course, this entire process requires that instructor of SPFLCCs venture into new fields of knowledge and learning and undertake research and experimentation in less traditional areas of foreign language and culture training. It also demands that they seek and develop bonds of cooperation and colleguiality with professionals and educators in other fields and with peoples of other cultures, and, above all, it urges that the teachers demonstrate the same qualities they wish to develop in their students. In short, it asks them to be persevering, creative, cosmopolitanm cooperative, trustful, aware, tolerant, empathetic, understanding, honest, and helpful or, in other words, it calls on them to be intercultural enlighteners. It is only hoped that this article has lit the way for the initiation and, perhaps, the realization of this process and humanistic goal.

Notes

[1] David A. Ricks, et. al., International Business Blunders (Columbus, OH: Grid, Inc., 1974), pp. 24-25.

[2] For more on Hispanic social values see Reginald Reindorp, Spanish American Customs, Culture and Personality (Macon, GA: Wesleyan College, 1968), pp. 313-35.

[3] Ricks, pp. 11-12. Pérez Erdélyi gives an almost classic case of potential cross-cultural misunderstanding in her article, "Cultural and Linguist Fluency: Spanish for Mental Health Professions" included in Foreign Languages for the Professions: An Intercultural Approach to Modern Communications, Proc. of the Center for International Higher Education Documentation Conference, 14 May 1981 (Weston, MA: Wesleyan, 1981), pp. 88-89. She states:

> Consider the case of Lupita, a migrant worker's little girl, who talks excitedly about seeing 'the green woman with long black hair' (la mujer verde de cabellera negra) who wailingly threatens 'to take her away' (que quiere llevársela). How would an Anglo therapist interpret Lupita's problem? A sympton of profound conflict with her mother? Incipient psychosis? A little knowledge of Mexican culture would reveal that the girl is talking about the legendary llorona, belief in whom is as prevalent among Mexican children as the jolly, fat man with the white beard is among Anglo children (pp. 88-89).

Is there any doubt about the problems that arise in cross-cultural settings?

[4] Marolyn J. Gustafson, "A Global Perspective for Business Education," The Balance Sheet, 63, No. (1981), p. 27.

[5] Marianne Elizabeth Plzak Inman, "An Investigation of the Foreign Language needs of U.S. Corporations doing Business Abroad," Diss. Univ. of Texas-Austin, 1978, p. 95 (ERIC ED 166 983); Philip R. Harris and Robert T. Moran, Managing Cultural Differences (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1979), p. 9.

[6] Venecia Rodríguez, "Increasing International Business Opportunities Through Improved Cross-Cultural Training" in Foreign Languages for Business, Proc. of EMU Conference on Foreign Languages for Business, 7-9 Apr. 1983, Ypsilanti, MI (ERIC ED 239 493), p. 30.

[7] Betty Ann Griffis, Cross-Cultural Issues in the Process of Sending U.S. Employees of Multinational Corporation's for Overseas Service: Theoretical Considerations with Practical Implications (ERIC ED 177 655), p. 39.

[8] Harris, p. 9; Inman, p. 32.

[9] Inman, p. 32; Albert R. Wight, et. al., Guide for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Part III: Supplementary Readings (Estes Park, CO: Center for Research and Education, 1970), p. 39 (ERIC ED 059 939).

[10] Pierre Casse, Training for the Cross-Cultural Mind, 2nd ed. (Washington, D.C.: The Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research [SIETAR], 1980), p. 223.

[11] It should be stated here that the needs assessment for the preparation of special purpose foreign language and culture courses will be a twofold process: 1) determining the needs of the students, and 2) assessing the demands of the career field, unless the students are already professionals and are sufficiently knowledgeable of the latter's general as well as language and cultural requirements.

[12] Peggy Schoonover, "Foreign Languages Desired but Unrequried," ADFL Bulletin, 13 (1982), p. 17.

[13] Michael S. Tang, "On Site Transcultural and Foreign Language Training for Business and Industry" in Foreign Languages for Business, Proc. of the 1983 EMU Conference for Business (ERIC ED 239 495), p. 384.

[14] Lloyd Baird, et. al., eds., The Training and Development Sourcebook (Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press, 1983), p. xiii; Casse, p. 223; Harris, p. 134.

[15] Griffis, p. 40.

[16] For instructions on how to develop realistic objectives of any type, see Robert F. Mager, Preparing Instructional Objectives (Palo Alto, CA: Frearon Press, 1962).

[17] H. Ned Seelye, "Performance Objectives for Teaching Cultural Concepts,"

Foreign Language Annals, 3 (1970), pp. 566-78.

[18] See H. Ned Seelye, Teaching Culture. Strategies for Foreign Language Educators (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1974), p. 33; Debbie Barndt, "The Cross-Cultural Communications Workshop" in David S. Hoopes, et. al., eds., Readings in Intercultural Communication (Pittsburg, PA: Univ. of Pittsburg, 1972), II, pp. 63-111.

[19] See Howard Lee Nostrand, ed. Background Data for Teaching French. 3 vols. (Seattle: Univ. of Washington, 1967) (ERIC ED 031 964; ED 031 989; ED 031 990); Tora Tuve Ladu, et. al. Teaching for Cross-Cultural Understanding (Raleigh: Department of Public Instruction, 1968) (ERIC ED 035 335).

[20] The course to which we are referring--"Cross Culture Differences Between the U.S. and the Spanish-speaking World"--was one offered by the author in January 1984 at Gettysburg College as part of the latter's former J-Term Program, and, although it was not specifically designed for a Business Spanish, much of the work undertaken in the preparation and instruction of that course have served as a guide and model to the one we are proposing here.

[21] The modular approach to structuring cross-cultural instructional is one highly recommended by many educators and trainees because of the variety and flexibility it offers to instruction (see Albert R. Wight and Mary Hammons, Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Part I: Philosophy and Methodology [Estes Park, CO: Center for Research and Education, 1970], p. 60 (ERIC ED 059 937).

[22] See Margaret D. Pusch, ed., Multicultural Education: A Cross-Cultural Training Approach (Chicago: Intercultural Press, Inc., 1981), p. 97; Howard Lee Nostrand, "Empathy for a Second Culture: Motivations and Techniques," in Responding to New Realities, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1974), p. 279.

[23] See Pusch, pp. 114-127; William H. Weeks, et. al., eds., A Manual of Structured Experiences for Cross-Cultural Learning Washington, D.C.: SIETAR, 1982).

[24] Seelye, Teaching Culture, pp. 91-94. Gorden's mini-drama "Cross-Cultural Experience in a Latin American Bank" can be found in ERIC ED 040 120.

[25] Although designed for high school students, Barbara Snyder's Encuentros culturales. Cross-Cultural Mini-Dramas (Skokie, IL: National Texbook Co., 1979), provides some interesting short dramatizations in Spanish of situations involving miscommunication between and Spanish speakers. Similar texts are available from

the same publisher in French (Arley V. Levno, Rencontres culturelles), German (Robert K. Shirer, Kulturelle Begegnungen), and Italian (Anna Maria Bee and Josephine D'Alleva, Incontri culturali).

[26] See Pusch, pp. 190-97; William G. Davey, ed. Intercultural Theory and Practice: A Method Approach (Washington, D.C.: SIETAR, 1981).

[27] For more information on the techniques of teaching culture, see Seelye, Teaching Culture, pp. 67-140, and the books edited by Davey, Pusch, Weeks, and one edited by David S. Hoopes and Paul Ventura, Intercultural Sourcebook: Cross-Culture Training Methodologies. (Washington, D.C.: SIETAR, 1979).

[28] See Henry Ferguson, Manual for Multicultural and Ethnic Studies. A Survival Manual for Innovative Leaders (Chicago: Intercultural Press, 1977); George Renwick, Evaluation Handbook for Cross-Cultural Training and Multicultural Education (La Grange Park: Intercultural Network Inc., 1980).

[29] See Seelye, Teaching Culture, pp. 141-59; Frances B. Nostrand and Howard Lee Nostrand, "Testing Understanding of the Foreign Culture," in H. Ned Seelye, ed.,Perspectives for Teachers of Latin American Culture (Springfield, IL: Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1970), pp. 161-70.

Appendix A

Model Questionnaire for Determining Intercultural Educational Needs of Spanish Language Stduents

The following questionnaire is directed to all second-year Spanish language students who are planning a career or are interested in business studies. Its purpose is to inquire about students' foreign language background and professional and learning needs, as well as to obtain information regarding your reaction to a proposed program of intercultural studies to be offered in the Spanish Department. If approved, this program will provide you with a unique course of instruction designed not only to enhance your professional training and preparation for a variety of language-related courses but also to improve your cultural awareness and understanding of other people, particularly from the Spanish-speaking world. The findings of this survey will be used to develop instructional program best-suited to meet your learning needs. Consequently, we would appreciate your most candid responses to the questions which follow, so that we can provide you with the type of learning you require.

Please return the questionnaire to your instructor. Thank you for your cooperation.

Please not these special instructions:

1. Answer all questions and place all responses on the questionnaire following the specific instructions for each question.
2. Use a number "2" pencil and erase all undesired answers.
3. Complete this questionnaire only once and leave it unsigned.
4. Any question you may have should be directed to your instructor.

**** **** **** **** ****

1. What is your current student classification? (Check the appropriate spaces in both columns.)

____freshman
____sophomore
____junior

____full-time
____part-time

____senior

____other (specify):

2. In what field do you currently seek or have a career? (Check the appropriate space and indicate the title of your present or future position.)

____agriculture

____business

____education

____fine arts

____government

____health

____religion

____social work

____other (specify):_______

Career position:___________

3. What is your current employment status, and if employed, is your job related to your career objectives? (Check the appropriate spaces in each column and indicate the title of your present position.)

____employed (full-time)

____employed (part-time)

____unemployed

____career-related job

____job unrelated to career

____Current job title:_________

4. Are you currently or do you think you will be working in a setting where other languages are or will be used?

____yes ____no

5. How helpful would a knowledge of one or more foreign languages be to you professionally?

____very helpful ____helpful ____somewhat helpful ____not helpful at all

6. What language(s), if any, is (are) or would be useful for you to know professionally or personally? (If more than one, rank 1, 2, 3, etc., in order of importance.)

____Chinese

____English

____Russian

____Spanish

____Arabic

____Portuguese

____German

____Japanese

____French

____Italian

____None

____Other (specify):_______

7. In the last three years, which of the aforementioned foreign languages, if any, did you study for at least two years? (Indicate each language studied, and when and where.)

language:______________when:____________________ where:_____________________

language:______________when:__________________where:____________________
language:______________when:__________________where:____________________

8. List the courses (title, number or level), if any, you have taken are taking in the languages listed in question 7 (e.g., Spanish 101-Basic Spanish, etc.),

______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

9. How would you rate your proficiency in the languages you cited in question 7 in the following areas?(specify the language(s) and rank each skill by using this scale: 1= "excellent," 2= "very good," 3= "good," 4= "fair," 5= "poor"):

language:__________speaking:__________reading:__________writing:__________
language:__________speaking:__________reading:__________writing:__________
language:__________speaking:__________reading:__________writing:__________

10. Do you or will you professional and/or presonal require you to be or interact in intercultural contexts, i.e., in situations involving people who speak different languages and come from other countries?

____yes ____no

11. If presently employed in a bilingual and/or cross-cultural environment or knowledgeable of your career field, what aspects of the "foreign" culture would you like to receive instruction in? (Check as many as apply to your needs, but, if there are more than one, rank 1, 2, 3, etc., in order of importance.)

____(art, music, literature, etc.)
____(life-styles, attitudes, beliefs, concepts, values, customs, etc.)
____(contemporary political, economic, and social problems and realities)
____(history and geography)
____(ethnicity and demographics)
____(business or professional-related practices)

12. For what contexts do you think you would need or like to use language and intercultural training? (Check as many as apply, but, if there are more than one, rank

1, 2, 3, etc., in order of importance.)

____interpersonal contexts (oral)

____reading technical journals, newspapers, manuals, brochures, etc.

____listening and understanding speakers from another culture

____writing technical reports, correspondence, telecommunications, etc.

13. What type of learning and instructional system(s) would you feel most comfortable with, and, if employed in a bilingual/intercultural setting, which one(s) would be useful to your professional/personal goals? (Check the most appropriate and, if more than one, rank 1, 2, 3, etc., in order of preference.)

____cognitive-didactic (imparting information mostly via lectures, discussions)

____practical-functional (training by objectives, learning by role-playing, etc.)

____affective-personal (cross-cultural behavior and self-awareness approach)

____experiential (combines the first three approaches)

14. What instructional resources would you find most helpful in learning in a cross-culture course? (Check as many as apply and rank 1, 2, 3, etc., in order of importance.)

____audio-visual aids (films, etc.)

____newspapers, etc.

____professionally-oriented material

____native informants

____guest-lecturers from various fields

____occasional field trips to places of cultural/professional interest

____realia (artefacts, money, etc.)

____computer-assisted instruction

____language laboratory

15. How would you rate yourself as a language learner? (Check as many as apply.)

____slow

____moderate

____fast

____poor

____satisfactory

____thorough

16. How would you rate yourself as a general learner? (Check as many as apply.)

____slow

____moderate

____fast

____poor

____satisfactory

____good

____outstanding

____thorough

17. If offered, would you take a cross-culture course that would complement your language and career objectives? Would you take it in the foreign language? (Answer the first question by checking one from set 1, and the second question by checking one from set 2.)

1.____yes/____no

2.____yes/____no

Appendix B

Sample syllabus - Special Purpose Foreign Language Culture Course

Business Across Cultures - Focus: U.S. and Spanish American Cultures

3 credits

Level: third year

Prerequisites: 2 years of college Spanish or permission of instructor

Required texts : Lewald, H. Ernest. Latinoamérica: sus culturas y sociedades. New York: McGraw Hill, 1973.

: Mayers, Marvin K. A Look at Latin American Life-styles. Dallas: International Museum of Cultures, 1982.

: Miller, J. Dale, et. al. USA-Hispanic South America Culture Capsules. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1979.

: Phillips, Robert and Olga Márques. Visiones de Latinoamérica. A Cultural Reader. 2nd ed. New York: Harper + Row, 1981.

Recommended texts: Miller, J. Dale and Russell H. Bishop. USA-Mexico Culture Capsules. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1979.

: Stewart, Edward C. American Culture Patterns: A Cross-Cultural Perspective. Chicago: Intercutural Network Inc., 1972.

: Zanger, Virginia Vogel. Exploración intercultural. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publisher, 1984.

Course Outline

Week

1st INTRODUCTION: Overview and background

1. Course rationale, objectives, content, and requirements
2. Definition of cultural and other terms and examples of cross-cultural business blunders with focus on Spanish America.
3. Description of the intercultural communication process.

2nd SELF-AWARENESS MODULE: Preparing oneself for cross-cultural communication
3rd and interpersonal relations through self-assessment (Approaches: affective

and behavioral)

1. Dimensions of personality. Unconscious (needs, drives) vs. superconscious (what culture has taught the individual to accept)
2. Concept of self (perspectives from which one views one's total being.
3. Perception (its influecne on cross-culture communication)
4. Prejudice (emphasis on ethnocentrism and stereotyping with examples from American and Hispanic cultures)
5. Growth and development (its effect on personality and intercultural relations)
6. The unconscious (its role in cross-cultural conflict
7. Creativity (how it is used as a positive tool in intercultural communication)

4th - 12th CROSS-CULTURAL MODULE: U.S. vs. Spanish America (Approaches: cognitive and experiential)

1. Culture
   - a. Value systems
     1. Indivdualism
     2. "Regionalismo"
     3. Patriotism and nationalism (role of violence)
     4. "Orientation people" (personalismo)
     5. Honor (dignidad)
     6. Authority
     7. Work and leisure
     8. Materialism vs. idealism
     9. Status
     10. Beauty and love (dating customs, piropos)
   - b. Underlying Assumptions of Fact
     1. Human nature
     2. Social relations
     3. Man and nature
     4. Concept of time
     5. Concept of space
   - c. Art forms
     1. Fine arts (painting, sculpture, music, dance)
     2. Theatre and cinema

    3. Literature
  d. Language
    1. Verbal: cultural idiosyncrasies and associative meanings of words and phrases
    2. Non-verbal (kinesics, chronemics, oculesics, haptics)
2. Social Structure
  a. The family
    1. Extended vs. nuclear
    2. *Compadrazgo* system (godparentage system)
    3. Role of male and female
      a. *Machismo y marianismo*
  b. Recreation (sports, holidays, entertainment)
  c. Education (Spanish and European models; literacy and illiteracy)
  d. Religion (Traditional and changing roles of the Catholic Church)
  e. Political and judicial institutions (centralism, *cuadillismo*, etc.)
  f. Economy (agrarian vs. industrial)
  g. Communications (media, censorship)
  h. Social stratification (social classes, ethnic breakdown, demographics)
  i. Social proprieties and other considerations (food, dress, *siesta*)
3. Ecology
  a. Attitude toward physical and social environment
  b. Housing
  c. Travel and transportation
  d. Technology

13th – PROFESSIONAL AWARENESS MODULE: Business (Approaches: Cognitive and experiential)

15th 1. Business practices or customs
  a. Bargaining
  b. Nepotism
2. Concepts and attitudes in business situations
  a. Time orientation
  b. *Personalismo*
  c. Work ethic
  d. Authority
  e. Materialism vs. idealism
3. Areas of conflict and factors involved in U.S.-Spanish American business relations and transactions

a. Technical (managerial, marketing, accounting, etc.)
b. Linguistic (verbal and non-verbal)
c. Socio-economic and political
d. Overseas assignments: culture shock, anomie, etc.

Course Description and Requirements

General Description

Given the international nature of most businesses in the U.S., there is great need for professionals not only fluent in one or more foreign languages but also knowledgeable and understanding of foreign cultures. This course is designed to provide you with both an awareness of Spanish American culture and the skills necessary to communicate and interact more effectively and with greater senstivity and empathy in business and social contexts with the peoples of that culture. It will focus on three areas crucial to successful intercultural communication and interpersonal relations--self-awareness, cross-cultural awareness, and professional awareness-- and will stress how each of these affect the general intercultural process. It will be conducted in Spanish and focus on how language, the highest expression of culture, plays an integral role in all transcultural relations.

Objectives

1. You will become familiar with the basic concepts of culture and communication to understand their role and importance for intercultural contexts.
2. You will examine your own behavior and learn how it affects the cross-cultural interactive process to overcome negative attitudes and develop positive ones.
3. You will become aware of the similarities and differences between U.S. and Spanish American cultures, especially as they refer to values, attitudes, concepts, customs, to use this knowledge to act and respond with greater understanding and senstivity in intercultural business and social situations.
4. You will learn about the socio-economic and political realities of Spanish America to better understand the origins, circumstances, problems, and needs

of the peoples of that region.

5. You will develop an awareness of specific values, attitudes, concepts, and customs peculiar to the Spanish-speaking business world and how to anticipate and respond to them with greater understanding and sensitivity.
6. You will learn to recognize and deal with some of the main problems of U.S. and Spanish American business relations to be able to cope with some of the realities of stateside and of overseas deployment--culture shock and anomie.
7. You will improve your ability to communicate in Spanish by focusing on the cultural idiosyncrasies and associative meanings of words to use them in simulated business and social situations.

Approaches, Techniques, and Activities

To successfully communicate and interact cross-culturally, you will not only need awareness of yourself, your profession, and of U.S. and Spanish American cultures in general, but you will also have to know how this knowledge and understanding can be used interculturally. Consequently, this course will employ the following training and learning approaches and techniques:

1. Cognitive (acquisition of knowledge): you will begin to acquire knowledge about yourself, your profession, and U.S. and Spanish American cultures via readings, lectures, including guest-lecturers, written assignments, films, oral reports, and the use of culture capsules, clusters, assimilators, minidramas, and case studies.
2. Self-Awareness/Behavioral (affective): you will gain an understanding of what influences your attitudes, behaviors, and emotions, as well as those of South Americans, and how these may affect various situations via individual conversations, small group discussions involving Spanish-speakers, and certain behavioral exercises.
3. Experiential (simulation of real-life): you will refelct on your communicative and interpersonal behavior as well as develop the various skills needed for effective interaction via role-playing, simulation and other experiential techniques, representative of real-life encounters and situations in cross-cultural social and business situations, as well as via field trips.

Resources and Materials

To provide you with an effective course of instruction and valuable cultural experience the following materials will be used as indicated:

1. Required textbooks to present a general and/or specific view of the subject matter to be treated.
2. A brief bibliography from which reading assignments to complement the texts by furnishing more up-to-date or special information or data related to self-awareness, U.S. and Spanish American cultures, and international business.
3. Films, slides, records, tapes, and other audio-visual aids as well as articles and selections culled from U.S. and Spanish-speaking newspapers, magazines, and other literature, both social and business, to give you a more authentic view of life and thought in the U.S. and Spanish America.

Requirements

Entry: You should have completed the first two years of college Spanish language training and demonstrate sufficient linguisitc ability and knowledge to undertake all assigned work.

Exit: You should plan to do the following:

a. Read pages assigned in texts and from other sources.
b. Participate in all in-class and out-of-class activities (discussions, lectures, role-playing, simulations, film-showings, field trips, etc.)
c. Complete and turn in, as requested, all in-class and out-of-class written assignments.
d. Take all oral and written examinations and quizzes.
e. Write three short papers on topics assigned and described as the semester progresses.
f. Give three oral presentations on topics assigned later in semester.

Evaluation

Your overall performance and work will be evaluated based on the requirements indicated above and according to the following classifications, percentages, and grading system:

Oral classroom participation	25%	A = 90-100
Three oral presentations	15%	B = 80- 89

Examinations	25%
Written Assignments	20%
Three written reports	15%
	100%

C = 70-79
D = 60-69
F = Forget it!

GENRE ANALYSIS AND ITS APPLICATION TO LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

By

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GENRE ANALYSIS AND ITS APPLICATION TO LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

John Swales

1. The Structuring of Language Courses

The private thinking of a specific-purpose course designer or materials writer is made public by the overt structuring of the language learning materials. This structuring becomes visible in a variety of formats and documents:

i) in the kinds of title and heading given to chapters, units or sections;

ii) in the way the syllabus is justified, outlined or described;

iii) in the highlighting of elements in a course description;

iv) and in the form a proposal takes in a bid for sponsorship or approval.

Thus, McDonough (1984) has been able to both categorize and illustrate the important issue of "approach" (Richards, 1984) by analyzing the contents pages of a range of textbooks. "The kinds of labels given to the units, although usually brief, can tell us about the perspectives on language and learning interest in the materials, and about their overall organization" (McDonough, 1984:46).

With very few exceptions, all the ESP unitization schemes of the last twenty years or so can be categorized - with a fair degree of content - into a restricted set of architypal approaches. The architypal approaches or models are listed in Figure 1, along with in each case three typical examples of unit titles plus an indication of the provenance of the model. Not all my colleagues would agree with the listing, nor would all agree with my views on the intellectual origin of particular models, but I trust that the categorization is sufficiently uncontroversial to serve my introductory purpose.

Figure 1: Models of ESP Course Structuring

Model	Examples of Units	Major Influences
A. Language-levels (pronunciation, lexis, syntax etc)	1. Word-Stress	
	2. The Present Passive	The Linguistic Sciences
	3. Business Vocabulary	
B. Skills	1. Reading	Behaviourism
	2. Writing	Language Learning
	3. Listening	Pedagogy
C. Rhetorical Functions	1. Classification	Rhetoric
	2. Definition	Linguistic Philosophy
	3. Comparison and Contrast	(Austin/Searle)
D. Concepts/Notions	1. Probability	ESP Research
	2. Measurement	Communicative
	3. Cause and Effect	Grammar
E. Situations	1. In the Office	Life -
	2. On the Shop-floor	experiences
	3. At the Airport	
F. Topics	1. The Oil Crisis	General Education
	2. The Discovery of Penicillin	
	3. Industrial Relations	Liberal Arts
G. Tasks (inc. study skills)	1. Setting up a Meeting	Linguistic Philosophy
	2. Revising a Term Paper	(Wittgenstein)
	3. Following Instructions	Applied Discourse Analysis
		Ethnography

Model A, in our communicative age, has been out of favor for years, as has traditional LSP research into the frequency and range of linguistic items within and across registers (e.g. Widdowson, 1979). Nevertheless both the model and its associated research tradition has a two-fold legacy. In the first place, we would do well to value and utilize that research for the data-based input it provides. A single instance must suffice. Chiu (1973) analyzed the most frequent verbs in two large samples of Canadian government language: administrative correspondence and boardroom discussion. Figure 2 gives the ten commonest verbs in each case.

Figure 2: The 10 most frequent verbs in two corpora (after Chiu)

Administrative Correspondence		Boardroom Discussion	
Rank		Rank	
1)	be	1)	be
2)	have	2)	have
3)	make	3)	think
4)	require	4)	know
5)	attach	5)	so
6)	appreciate	6)	say
7)	enclose	7)	get
8)	receive	8)	take
9)	provide	9)	do
10)	refer	10)	find

The differences are patent. It is doubtful for instance if many would have guessed the high frequency of occurrence in official letters of such verb-lexemes as *attach*, *appreciate* and *enclose*. A cursory look at several textbooks designed to teach administrative and commercial correspondence equally suggests that textbook writers have seriously underestimated the use of such verbs. Frow (1981) is almost certainly wrong in his hypothesis that administrative discourse will be more affected by the subject matter than by whether the communication is oral or written.

The second legacy is attitudinal rather than substantive. The rise of the communicative language learning movement has rightly underlined the need for the LSP profession to show greater educational responsibility - to be more than just purveyors of information, setters of tasks and presenters of principles. However, in the current concern with the individual learner, with the processes of language learning, and with devising of methodologies that will maximize communicative interaction, there has been some neglect of the older tradition of linguistic responsibility. There is, I suspect, an increasing reliance on inherited beliefs, armchair prescriptions and unresearched textbook guidelines about the actual linguistic properties of communicative events in the real world. Again only one illustration is possible. Kinai et al (1985) have recently investigated the admonitions of Day (1979) and many others that writers of research papers should close their introductions with a summary of their main findings. Kinai et al were able to show , although admittedly on a small sample, that 80% of 'successful' writers (at least in the sense that they get their articles published) do not in fact "pre-announce" their conclusions.

The 4-skills Model B is sufficiently well known to permit a shorter discussion. In LSP situations, it is obviously at risk in overgeneralizing the types of skill that may be required and in failing to identify which sub-skills are used for which purposes. In a recent article on 'Physicists reading Physics', Bazerman (1985) has shown that professional physicists rarely read journal articles in a serial manner. Bruce (personal communication) observes that Kuwaiti doctors typically read English medical articles in reverse order. They read the Discussion, if that interests them they look at the Results, if the Results are of interest they examine the Method section, and if their attention is still maintained, they will study the description of previous literature in the Introduction. Mathes and Stevenson (1976) cite research that managers only read the body of reports submitted to them 15% of the time. Clearly, the LSP profession needs to be able to take on board motivated but non-standard reading practices such as those I have just alluded to - and the same would be true, if to a lesser extent, for the other skills. Reading processes (and those in the other three skills) also need to be examined in specific contexts. And here I believe the recent revival of interest in schema theory is of considerable relevance. If we follow Carrell (1983a; 1983b) and argue for a distinction between content schemata (background knowledge of the content area of a text) and formal schemata (background knowledge of the rhetorical structures of different types of text) we can see that both emerge as crucial variables that need to be taken into account in devising LSP programs.

The rhetorical function and notional Models can be taken together. Both possess the enormous advantage of having a built-in emphasis on communicative purpose, but both have a number of inherent weaknesses. As Munby (1978) showed all too well, models of the Card D type typically become too atomistic. Like Model A, they tend to offer units that deal with the single sentences or utterances. They, also, in an effort to maintain clarity and to maintain some link between function and form, have tended to opt for the monofunctionality of sentences and utterances (as indeed did their philosophical precursors Austin and Searle). However, we know that isomorphism between function and utterance is a dangerous simplification, especially in professional settings. For example, Candlin et al (1974) have revealed that the following type of utterance made in the setting of a hospital Casualty Department has three functions:

"I'm just going to pop a couple of little stitches in".

Obviously enough, it functions as a piece of information that the patient needs to have. Secondly, the form of words chosen reflects the doctor's desire to reassure the patient that what is to come is relatively non-serious and non-painful (compare 'You are going to need some sutures'). However, Candlin and his colleagues were also able to show that the third function of the utterance was an indirect instruction to the nurse to prepare the suture-set. It is clear that communicating on those three levels simultaneously requires a very considerable degree of communicative skill and not surprisingly, working in Casualty emerged as one of the key situations in which foreign doctors required screening and support. A final difficulty with these models lies in the tendency of their protagonists to be satisfied with identifying a function. However, to be able to label a statement as, say "a definition" is not of itself to have achieved very much. More to the point would be insight into why a definition had been introduced at that particular juncture and what was the purpose of its introduction; indeed Swales (1983) has argued that definitions have very different purposes in Science, Law and Social Science textbooks and that it is the characteristics of particular disciplinary cultures that coerce the diverse roles, forms and distributions of definitions in such expository texts.

The Situational Approach typified by Model E has found relatively little favor in LSP courses, one possible reason being that it seems more suited to the learning of socially appropriate behaviour than that which is communicatively effective. On the other hand, it is valuable for the emphasis it places on the non-verbal environment. The developments in both discourse analysis and LSP have tended to stress the importance of understanding texts as textual phenomena (using 'text' in its contemporary sense of encompassing oral as well as written) and of relying entirely on techniques of textual analysis to get at that understanding. However, the discourse analyst and the LSP practitioner alike may have given text too great a place in nature for, whilst it is true that textual study is essential, it is not necessarily sufficient. The course designer needs to know, for instance, not only something about the target texts but also about the patterns of significance, use and evaluation given to them by the members of the institutions that use such texts. Is a textbook a "bible", a "straw-man" or something in-between? Is an agenda sacrosanct, not worth the paper it is typed on, or something in-between?

Model F also has a contribution to make, especially in the area of content. Although the model has rarely produced exceptional courses (often being a fall-back for more indolent or less imaginative materials writers and often giving teachers too much opportunity for deciding what their LSP students ought to be interested in), it raises issues of how to handle texts with familiar or unfamiliar content schemata, of how to choose texts that are prototypic in terms of rhetorical structuring and of how to decide which would be appropriate text-based tasks. Imagine for instance a group of diplomats who need a capacity to read the newspaper editorials of the country to which they are (or will be) posted. Available research (Boliver 1982) indicates that a common rhetorical structure for such a genre is the following three-part development: description of actual events; delineation of possible events; advocacy of desirable events. The group itself could then evaluate this putative schema against a range of content, political, economic etc. Even in a relatively straightforward situation such as this, 'content' is hard to identify in any simple way with "what a text is about". And complexity increases if recent distinctions between 'carrier content' (the surface text-content) and 'real content' (the underlying task-content) are incorporated (Scott and Scott, 1984; Crocker and Swales, 1984).

The final model (G) is concerned with specific tasks and has, I would argue, considerable advantages over preceding models:-

1) It produces a set of units of manageable size,
2) The units are labelled so as to stress communicative purpose and achievement ("another useful job done").
3) The units involve an integration of the traditional four skills.
4) The units are all concerned with both types of schema.
5) The units are placed within constrained communicative settings so that certain regularities of organization and form-function correspondence are apparent and utilizable.
6) The units are expressed in terms comprehensible to lay people.

However, LSP task-based learning, for all its advantages, remains at risk if tasks are inappropriate, ill-understood or ill-defined for the professional contexts that they are designed to serve. It is a purpose of applied genre-analysis to offer that clarification and definition and to offer it in terms that are sufficiently specific in linguistic characterization to be transposable into LSP curricula. As we have seen, such an analysis is more of an eclectic amalgam of the strong points of previous approaches, rather than a radical departure. As far as LSP is concerned, the antecedents of a genre-driven approach are summarized in Figure 3.

Figure 3 LSP Antecedents of Genre Analysis

Model A : Linguistic responsibility

Model B : Specific-situation sub skills, practices and processes

Model C : The role of communicative purpose
Model D : The importance of sub-cultures
genre analysis

Model E : Text-roles within textual environments

Model F : The complex nature of 'content'

2. Towards An Analysis of Genres

In the opening section I concluded that organizing teaching units and activities along genre-based lines offered gains of both coherence and relevance. I would now like to advance another claim: a genre-approach not only makes sense as a way of structuring the narrow world of the LSP classroom, but also reflects a reality beyond that narrow world. I would suggest that we operate in society, both at work and at play, partly through a repertoire of genres that most of us add to and become more proficient in as we become older. This is one reason why the communicative approach can be unsuccessful with teenagers; teenagers tend to have a very limited genre repertoire, either through lack of experience or through their refusal to participate in many of the genres of adult society.

Traditionally genres have been more associated with art rather than with life; with literature (e.g. Fowler,1983)or with film (Neale,1979)for instance. There is also a long history of genre-analysis in the field of folklore studies. The tradition in the discourse analysis and sociolinguistic areas is much shorter and currently there is considerable terminological confusion: apart from genre itself (from art criticism) there proliferate partly overlapping terms such as topic-type (reading research) *activity-type* (anthropology), *text-type* (text linguistics), *episode* and *communicative event* (ethnography) *script* (discourse analysis) and so on. For the present purpose I offer the following description of *genres*:-

a) A genre is a recognized communicative event with a shared public purpose and with aims mutually understood by the participants within that event. (The emphasis on purpose allows a way of distinguishing 'the real thing' from parody, which if good may reproduce all the linguistic and rhetorical features of the text being parodied.)

b) A genre is, within variable degrees of freedom, a structured and standardized communicative event with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their positioning, form and intent. Thus a genre is a bounded but infinite. Genres do not deny creativity but rather encourage it by providing a framework through which communicative activities can be channeled and expectancies shared.

c) Overt knowledge of the conventions of a genre is likely to be much greater in those who routinely or professionally operate with that genre rather than in those who become involved in it only occasionally.

d) Societies give genre names to types of communicative event that they recognize as recurring. Named genres are manifested though spoken or written texts (or both) but are not themselves texts. Genre is a concept that encompasses text, text-role and text-environment.

e) Modified genre-names (*survey* article, *issue* memo, *cocktail* party) indicate features that a speech community finds salient and thus provide a way into sub-genres.

f) Individual genres cannot be defined for genres are continually evolving. Some are in decline (*formal debates* run according to Robert's Rules), others are changing, others are being developed (*poster sessions*).

g) Genres differ in a number of ways: the nature and complexity of communicative purpose; the degree of pre-preparation; the relations between creators and receivers of genres; their propensity for being embedded within other genres; the degree to which they are culturally-specific etc.

The following sample list of utterances indicates a few of the genres that are recognized in my own speech community; they exemplify in their different ways many of the genre characteristics that have just been described.

1) Her latest article is even better written than the others.
2) News broadcasts are becoming more and more parochial.
3) Dr. Jones can always be relied on for a good reference.
4) Do you have a recipe for this?
5) I didn't really expect a sales-pitch.
6) The usual pep-talk.
7) Are you going to the party?
8) She really enjoys heart-to-hearts.
9) At least they're not a couple who're always having rows.
10) Mother thinks the funeral went off rather well, considering.

The article, or perhaps more properly the research article, is in quantitative terms one of the most important English-language written-text genres, probably only rivalled in number of printed examples by news reports in newspapers. The world's annual production of research articles runs into the millions, and at least half are written in English (Baldauf and Jernudd, 1983; Swales, forthcoming). Inevitably there is a heavy non-native speaker involvement in this genre, both as producers and consumers of texts. The research article is also of considerable qualitative significance. As Ziman (1968) and many others subsequently have noted, research is not considered complete until it is made available to the wider research community.

Further, publication is the major route to tenure, promotion, research grants and so on. The macro-structure of the genre is therefore well understood: Introduction, Method, Results and Discussion. However, the rhetorical organization within certain sections such as Introduction and Discussion is not so well perceived by the practitioners of the genre; equally obscured may be a realization that the research article, especially at the outset, is often a powerful piece of rhetorical persuasion rather than some neutral descriptive commentary. Section 3 will illustrate how recent work in this genre might be turned to pedagogical account.

If research articles are quite different texts to the notes and written data from which they emanate(Latour and Woolgar, 1979; Gilbert and Mulkay, 1984), similarly news broadcasts have little direct relationship with everyday narratives of events. First, there is the well-known inversion of temporal sequence as encapsulated in the journalistic maxim of 'put the freshest at the top'. Second, news broadcasts are structured through a complex and recursive set of text organizing elements: station identifications ("this news comes to you from.."); time-signals; wavelength information; the blocking of news ("here are the headlines", "the news in detail", "the main points again"); greetings and the personal identification of the news reader in order to counteract the distance of the Institutional Voice (Lerman, 1983), and so on. Thirdly, editorial control not only is responsible for deciding which items are sufficiently newsworthy to warrant inclusion, but also for handling matters of attribution and background information. Attribution is the process of moderating the correctness of an item by such qualifications as "according to reports reaching..."); background information is the insertion of factual comment, most typically about people and places, so that the listenership can process the newscast without strain or bewilderment. In turn, all these features can be related to the purposes of newscasts and to the discoursal expertise of those responsible for them.

References are another distinct type of genre-text that once again needs to be understood in its own terms, rather than be taken as broadly representative of the language as a whole. References are not descriptions of individual careers; rather they are evaluations that are both written and read against a background of what is not said. Thus, the support for an individual tends to be measured more by the length of the reference rather than its content. In all three of the cases that there is space here to comment on (the research paper, the newscast, the reference) general communicative skill is patently insufficient for timely creation of a successful product; in each case a period of apprenticeship to the genre is also required. Thus, the LSP learner may come to genres with assets as well as liabilities; that learner, especially in genres with relatively little cross-cultural variation, may already be apprenticed in her or his first language, even though s/he may carry liabilities in the form of much reduced competence in the target language.

Earlier in this section I claimed that our communicative behaviour is organized partly through a repertoire of genres. I am not therefore claiming that all communicative events are instances of genres; indeed I would now like to suggest that there are two important areas of verbal activity that are better considered as non genre-specific. One area is casual day-to-day conversation and the other is ordinary narrative accounts. It seems to me that these two verbal activities are prototypical or pre-genric in a number of ways: in the probable evolution of human societies, in an individual's acquisition of language, in the sheer amount of time given to chat and story-telling, and in the fact that most human beings are psychologically dependent on such interactions and exchanges. As a result, the interest for the genre-analyst lies in the kinds of relationship that might exist between the "rules", patterns and procedures of general conversation and narrative and genre-specific communicative events. Do (Say) the Gricean maxims still apply? Are unequal encounters (Candlin 1984) such as normally occur between doctor and patient, police and suspect, lawyer and witness, teacher and pupil, bank manager and loan applicant different in kind to those that occur between peers in incidental settings? Do summaries of previous research, descriptions of experiments, testimonials and references, news broadcasts, or corporation annual reports have their own sets of organizing principles that are to be separably distinguished from the generalizations attempted in the field of narratology (Prince, 1982)? There are as yet no firm answers to these difficult questions but I believe the better way of proceeding is to examine each genre in its own terms -- to take, if you will, the perspective of the cultural anthropologist and apply it to those areas of business and professional discourse wherein we wish to provide training for our LSP learners. In the final section I offer some illustrative indications of how this might be done.

3. Applications of Genre Analysis

This section consists of three illustrations. The first is taken from the field of Research English and attempts to show how discoursal and rhetorical analysis can be turned to pedagogical account. The second comes from English for Academic Legal Purposes and is concerned with text and task and with carne's and real content. The third is from Business and Administrative English and is more concerned with matters of course design.

The introduction sections of research articles usually have a three - or four-part information structure - although there is some possibility of recursion, especially in the Social Sciences (Crookes, forthcoming). Various characterisations of this structure have been offered (an elaborated problem-solution text-type, as in Zappen (1983), or the creation of a 'research space', Swales,(1981), but all commentators observe that researchers tend to end their introductions by introducing their own current research. Typically, they do this in either one of two main ways:-

1. Purposive: The aim of this paper. . .
The purpose of the present investigation . . .
It is the purpose of the present study . . .
This study was designed to. . .

2. Descriptive:
a) collapsed: The present analysis utilizes . . .
This paper reports . . .
b) Uncollapsed: In the present paper, changes are reported . . .
In this paper, we will argue that . . .

A number of teaching points for both the reading and writing of research English can be obtained from this type of analysis:-

a) In the above genre-specific context, a key signal that a writer has made the transition from evaluating previous research to introducing the current study is the use of this or the present. In this context, these two elements are used interchangeably (i.e. the present can be considered as a demonstrative pronoun). If, however, this refers back to the evaluation, it is not replaceable by the present:-

To remedy this deficiency, we have . . .
In view of these uncertainties, an attempt . . .

Thus the reference of this can be used for teaching comprehension and discourse structure.

b) We have an ideal opportunity to review a complex lexical set: paper, article, study, report etc.

c) That review will enable us to sort out the vexed question of whether "is" or "was" is the preferred verb form in purposive statements. Suppose we divide the lexical set into two sub-sets:

i) type and place of presentation:-

paper, article, report, review, presentation, letter, thesis, note etc.

ii) type of enquiry:-

investigation, study, enquiry, research, work, experiment, analysis ...

then we can see that the past tense is blocked with sub-set i) but not with sub-set ii):-

The purpose of this paper is to *The purpose of this paper was to	Sub-Set 1
The purpose of this work is to The purpose of this work was to	Sub-Set 2

d) According to Kojima and Kojima (1981) the collapsed structure is not possible in Japanese and hence Japanese researchers find it alien and consistently opt for the uncollapsed variant. Given the heavy use of the collapsed structure in Research English, we now have both a sufficiently motivated context and audience to give it special attention.

All I have done in this example is examine a small part of a small section of a single genre. Despite the microscopic nature of this analysis, I venture to think that valuable work on the use of this - perhaps the key determiner in academic prose - can be done; that a crucial lexical area can be explored; that it can be shown how the general English distinction between past and present may be neutralized in certain genre-specific contexts; and that there is cross-cultural variation in the acceptability of certain common research English sentence patterns. If such things have been achieved, they have been achieved by genre-analysis itself and by recognizing that within genres we can find strongly motivated opportunities for teaching particular linguistic features.

The second illustration takes up two inter-related issues within the sub-field of English for Academic Legal Purposes. For some years there has been a controversy about the appropriacy of using legal case descriptions in the early stages of EALP courses. On one side, Calderbank (1982) has argued that case descriptions are an excellent starting point because they exhibit simple discourse, are detachable from a required knowledge of the whole legal system and are texts suitable for standard problem-solving exercises. Similarly Swales (1982) advocates their early use "because they are similar in many respects to the narratives and stories familiar from school English". On the other side, White (1979) has shown that language teachers set comprehension questions on cases that are quite different to those raised by lawyers; moreover, the English teachers' questions are judged by the lawyers to be either irrelevant or appropriate. Further support for postponement of cases comes from Davie (1982) who argues that case descriptions require lengthy genre-specific reading strategies that turn on spotting the ratio decidendi. We thus have a controversy between textual-similarity and task-specificity. The narrow textual approaches of Calderbank and Swales fail to take text-role sufficiently into account; more importantly, such an approach may have the deleterious effect of teaching students a wrong way of studying cases.

In fact, a genre-driven concern to shift some of the attention away from engaging students in the right text to engaging them in the right task offers some hope to LSP practitioners who feel undermined by a need to understand the content of alien fields. For instance, there may be many EALP teachers around the world who would prefer not to cope with authentic legal texts. If, however, we recognize that all law students need exceptional skills in detecting and ambiguity (Crocker 1982), then we have a suitable task to hand; further our own linguistic training will be a storehouse of suitable short texts, such as:-

Flying planes can be dangerous.
He decided on the boat.
All the old men and women were ill.

The carne's content then will be exercises in English grammar, but the real content will be developing in the law students a capacity for disambiguation as part of their legal training.

The final illustration is taken from Business English, more precisely from an upper-intermediate course I am developing on International Business Communication. One strand of this course is structured through a text-task sequence that is graded across two paremeters: the length of text and the complexity of audience. Part of the course structure looks like this:

Figure 4: A Task-Based IBC Syllabus

The comprehension, analysis, revising and writing of:-

1. Telexes
2. Telephone messages (message slips)
3. Attachment notes and Routing Slips
4. Other messages
5. Short individual memos (reminders, requests for meetings etc)
6. Short issue memos and circulars (simple announcements, etc)
7. Short business letters (acknowledgement of receipt, reservations etc)
8. More complex memos and letters
9. Progress Reports
10. More elaborate reports (including financial forecasting).

So far this looks like a Reading-Writing course in business and administrative documentation. A number of other features would seem to be required: a better integration of skills, some cyclic reworking of the tasks, and some interface with the world outside the classroom. The second strand, therefore, is the small group project. Three projects are currently underway: an investigation into the University of Michigan's Campus Mail System, a study of the previous year's ELI Current Account, and an analysis of the ELI's marketing policy.

This paper has attempted to give genre-analysis a central place in the teaching of Language for Specific Purposes. I have argued that a genre perspective gives the course designer a manageable and a meaningful framework within which to construct courses. I have suggested that a genre approach offers the learner a series of keys by means of which s/he can engage in many of the structurable communicative events of business and professional life. As Carolyn Miller says

> ... what we learn when we learn a genre is not just a pattern of forms or even a method of achieving our own ends. We learn, more importantly, what ends we may have: we learn that we may eulogize, apologize, recommend one person to another, instruct customers on behalf of a manufacturer, take on an official role, account for progress in achieving goals. (Miller, 1984:165)

The foreign language learner needs equally to learn ends as well as means; otherwise that learner may be prone to fossilization, to survivalist communication strategies, and to the modes and genres of the mother culture in all the ways that are only too familiar to us.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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PART IV

ESL FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

BUSINESS ENGLISH IN THAILAND: THE NEEDS OF THE THAI BUSINESS COMMUNITY, AND COURSES TAUGHT AT THE THAI UNIVERSITY

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BUSINESS ENGLISH IN THAILAND : THE NEEDS OF THE THAI BUSINESS COMMUNITY, AND COURSES TAUGHT AT THE THAI UNIVERSITY.

INTRODUCTION.

During the last two decades, Thailand has tried to introduce improvements in society in general and the economic sphere in particular. The ultimate goal of the present Thai government is to develop the country to the point where it will become at least semi-industrialized by the end of the Fifth Development Plan in 1986. In order to achieve this goal, the government has encouraged investment by foreign countries, especially the United States and Japan. Moreover, the government has also promoted the export of Thai merchandise. Thailand has done and continues to do business with more than 100 countries all over the world. (Information courtesy of the Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce). Thus, the essential medium for business communication is certainly English or more specifically business English. Business English is becoming increasingly important in Thailand because it has an important part to play in helping the country to achieve its ultimate goal, that is to sucessfully boost its economy and improve the overall quality of life in society and to take its place among the industrialized nations.

The purpose of this presentation is to report the results of the survey of: (1) sixty out of the 600 biggest Thai companies comprising manufacturing companies, trading companies, financial institutions, hotels and private hospitals; (2) Business English curricula and courses of 4 state universities, namely: Chulalongkorn, Thammasa~~r~~t, Kasetsart, Srinakarinwirot, and 2 private universities, namely; the University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, Bangkok University, and 2 private Colleges, namely: Assumption Business Administration College and Kirk College. The survey was carried out between 1982-1983.

The procedures adopted were as further. Data were collected by means of 3 sets of questionnaire sent to the personnel of business companies. Interviews were also conducted. In order to collect data from state and private universities and private colleges, the questionnaire, the curricula and the interviews were used. The presentation is divided into 3 parts:

I. The Needs of the Thai Business Community.

II. The Courses Taught at the Thai Universities.

III. An Evaluation of the Courses.

I. THE NEEDS OF THE THAI BUSINESS COMMUNITY.

Sixty companies were selected at random from a piece of research entitled "600 Biggest Companies in Thailand" conducted by a group of lecturers from the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy at Thammasat University between 1977-1980.

The results of the survey presented in table form together with explanation are as follows:

Table 1. The Importance of Business English in 60 of the Biggest Companies in Thailand

Degree of Importance

No.of the Companies	Highest 5	High 4	Moderate 3	little 2	not at all 1	Total
Manufacturing Co.(16)	2	6	3	5	-	16
Trading Co. (21)	3	11	7	-	-	21
Financial Institutions (18)	4	3	6	5	-	18
Hotels (3)	1	2	-	-	-	3
Private Hospitals(2)	1	-	1	-	-	2
Total	11 (18.333%)	22 (36.666%)	17 (30%)	10 (16.666%)	-	60

The mean is 3.516. This indicates that Business English is very important to Thai business companies.

The use of English was found to be most prevalent among managers and managers of divisions. In descending order; managers, managers of divisions, assistants to managers, secretaries, typists, personnel in foreign divisions, and heads of sections used English to a correspondingly lesser degree in their daily work. Even the personnel of the foreign division, however, considered they use English for a little over half their work.

Fifty-three companies use English to communicate with foreign companies to a considerable degree. However, 37 companies out of 60 use English within their companies because they want to maintain the same standard as international companies. Another reason for using English is that chiefs of divisions are foreigners.

Table 2. Degree of Using 5 Skills of Business Companies

Skills	No.	Highest	High	Moderate	Little	Not at all	$\bar{x}$
Listening	60	16	10	17	9	8	3.283
Speaking	60	14	16	14	12	4	3.400
Reading	60	13	17	19	9	2	3.500
Writing	60	18	18	10	13	1	3.650
Translation	60	8	6	13	14	9	2.500

From Table 2, it can be seen that Thai Business Companies use written English to a considerable degree. On the other hand, they use listening, speaking and reading skills to a moderate degree and translation only a little.

Table 3. The Requirements of Executives Re: the Linguistic Ability of their Personnel.

Executives of	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Translation
Manufacturing Co.	good	good	good	good	little
Trading Co.	good	good	fairly good	*Excellent	fairly good
Financial Institutions	good	fairly good	good	good	fairly good
Hotels	*Excellent	*Excellent	good	fairly good	fairly good
Private Hospitals	good	*Excellent	good	little	least

From Table 3, it can be seen that the executives of hotels required a high degree of proficiency in listening and speaking skills of their personnel while the executives of private hospitals required a high level of oral ability only. However, executives of trading companies required a very high standard terms of writing. Executives of private hospitals had least need for translation skill.

The Five Skills: Their Relative Importance and Use.

The questionnaire was sent to 94 Managers of Divisions in 60 companies to find out the extent to which each skill was used and the purposes for which they were needed. The results are as follows:

Listening Comprehension.

Clearly, listening is fairly important to businessmen since they frequently have to deal directly with their counterparts and foreign customers. Sixty-seven percent of those interviewed needed listening skills for telephone conversations. The topics include business transactions and general conversation; the language used, that of discussion.

Oral Skills.

Oral skills are also used to some degree by businessmen. This oral communication mainly takes the form of discussions, but also serves a general conversational purpose. Another purpose of less importance is to give information concerning their merchandise and describe their products. Thai businessmen have to use English when speaking to their foreign counterparts and their customers, but rarely use it to their colleagues and employees.

Reading Skills.

Reading comprehension skills are also fairly important to Thai businessmen. To a certain degree, they are required to read material concerning the day-to-day running of their business, such as business letters, telexes, telegrams, business journals, administrative orders, instructional manuals and various kinds of reports. The main purpose of their reading is to comprehend the material then draft a reply. Another equally important purpose is to extend their knowledge of this particular field of business. They rarely read in order to criticize and analyze.

Writing Skills.

Writing is also essential. The various forms of written communication arranged in descending order of importance are: first telexes and letters of request and inquiry, then memos, telegrams and records of all sorts. The kinds of letters most rarely used are those involving Claims, Adjustments and Sales.

Those to whom they write are mostly their customers and to a lesser degree their employers.

Translation.

Translation is of so little importance that is not worth mentioning in a business context.

With regard to those personnel in business companies who use English in their daily work, 75% of them completed their education in Thailand, whereas 16.1% graduated from the United States. Forty-seven percent had got a Bachelor's degree, while 24% had only got diplomas in Business Studies. However, 15% had got a Master's degree. While working, they apply what they have studied and what they have learned through self-study together with their experience. The problems that they have in using Business English are mainly concerned with their speaking and listening skills, and only to a lesser degree with writing. They have the least problem with reading. Ninety percent of those who have problems solve them by reading textbooks while 65.2% study from their old texts that they have studied at school or university. However, the personnel of the companies surveyed would like to see a vast improvement in their speaking and listening abilities, but they see less of a need to improve other skills.

Conclusion.

Business English: A Comparative Table of: The Extent of its Use, Standards Required by Employers, Problems Encountered, Personnel Need for Improvement.

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Translation
Use	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	*Great	Little
Standard Required by Employers	Good	Good	Good	Good	Fairly good
Problems Encountered	Moderate	Moderate	Little	Moderate	Little
Personnel Need for Improvement	*Great	*Great	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate

In conclusion, writing is used to a great degree in Thai Business Community, but the users really need to improve their listening and speaking skills. However, the executives of business companies want their personnel to be well versed in all the four skills, namely, listening, speaking reading and writing.

II. THE COURSES TAUGHT AT THAI UNIVERSITIES.

1. State Universities.

In Thailand there are 13 state universities of which 2 are open, and 3 are situated in the provinces. Only 5 state universities in the capital offer business English courses and it was 4 out of these 5 which were surveyed. They are (1) Chulalongkorn University (CU), (2) Thammasat University (TU), (3) Kasetsart University (KU) and (4) Srinakharinwirote University - Prasarnmitr (SWU). The findings are as follows.

1.1 The Commencement of Business English Courses at 4 State Universities, CU, TU, KU and SWU.

Two out of the four universities KU and TU started business courses in 1976 and 1977 respectively whereas the other two CU and SWU began theirs in the same year-1980.

1.2 Credits Allotted.

The credits allotted range from 1 to 3.

1.3 Status of Course.

Only one state university, CU has compulsory Business English courses for Commerce students; two of the others, TU and KU offer them as elective courses open to all students, SWU offers a course for teachers of Business Education.

Only two universities out of four, CU and TU have intensive business English courses.

1.4 Skills Offered.

Only CU offers speaking and writing as two separate skills; of the other three universities, TU has only one writing course whereas KU offers all the skills in one integrated course and SWU has two writing courses.

1.5 The Nomenclature of Business English Courses.

The courses go by different names: Business Writing, Writing English for Specific Communication, Technical English for Economics Students, Business Communication and English for Commercial Purpose.

1.6 Materials Used.

Two of the State Universities, CU and TU have written their own materials while the other two use overseas textbooks without adaptation.

1.7 The Enrollment.

Only CU which requires Commerce students to take Business English, has about 450 students registering for a course each semester. At the other three universities, TU, KU and SWU,there are about 15-70 students per course each semester.

1.8 Teaching Method (s).

Both situational and functional approaches are applied in teaching Business courses in the 4 state universities.

1.9 The Curricula.

The curricula were drawn up by foreign experts. The administrators and instructors also make use of overseas textbooks and feedback from Thai businessmen in determining the contents of courses.

2. Private universities and colleges.

Two private universities, namely the university of the Thai Chamber of Commerce (UTCC) and Bangkok University (BU), and 2 private UTCC colleges namely Assumption Business Administration College (ABAC) and Kirk College (KC) were surveyed. The findings are as follows:

2.1 The Commencement of Business English courses at 4 private institutions.

The University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce (UTCC) first offered Business English courses in 1965, and now it offers a total of 32. This includes as many as 13 foundation Business English courses more than those of other universities and colleges in Thailand.

2.2 Credits Allotted.

The credits allotted are 3 for every Business English course of private institutions.

2.3 Status of Course.

Business English is compulsory in 3 of the 4 private institutions surveyed. In those private institutions, UTCC, BU and ABAC Business English is compulsory for students of Economics, and Business Administration as well as Secretarial and Humanities.

2.4 Skills Offered.

UTCC offers 5 separate skills namely, listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. The other three offer only writing skills.

2.5 The Nomenclature of Business English Courses.

The names are different. BU, ABAC and KC name their courses: Business English I, II, III and IV. UTCC calls Business Communication I, II and Communicative Writing I, II and also Business English I and II..

2.6 Materials Used.

Four private institutions use various overseas textbooks together with their own written materials. ABAC uses one book only entitled "Writing and Communication in Business" by J. Harold Janis as textbook in class for four Business English courses.

2.7 Enrollment.

Thirty to seventy five students attend each course per semester.

2.8 Teaching Method (s).

Instructors use situational and functional approaches in teaching Business English.

2.9 The Curricula.

The curricula were determined by foreign experts and Thai businessmen. The administrators also considered overseas curricula and text-books including authentic correspondence in forming their own curricula.

III. EVALUATION OF THE COURSES TAUGHT

The Relevancy of the Skills Taught at Thai Universities to the Needs of the Thai Business Community.

1. When comparing the needs of the Thai Business Community with the skills taught at the Thai Universities, the results are as follows.

1.1 Business English Writing as taught at CU (state) and TU (state) is relevant to the needs of the Thai Business Community for proficiency in writing skills.

1.2 KU (state) has a Business English course in which integrated skills are taught. The course, however, does not serve the needs of the Thai Business Community owing to constraints on teaching time.

1.3 SWU (state) has Business English courses for teachers of Business Administration, Clearly, these do not directly serve the needs of the Thai Business Community.

1.4 UTCC (private) has a business English curriculum which is relevant to the needs of the Thai Business Community for all round proficiency in the 5 skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation.

1.5 BU (private) has a business curriculum and courses which are relevant to the needs for writing, listening, and speaking skills. But the speaking courses are for interoffice communication only; for those who will become secretaries.

1.6 As regards another private college, KC in the year the survey was carried out, 1982-1983, part-time lecturers were assigned responsibility for Business English courses. However, no students registered for those courses; and hence there is no information available for analysis.

2. When the contents of each course and the emphasis of the instructors on the topics are compared with the needs of the Thai Business Community, the findings are as follow.

2.1 Most business English writing courses are somewhat relevant to the need for writing skills.

2.2 Two business English writing courses of UTCC (private) Business English I and II are significantly relevant to the need for proficiency in writing skills of the Thai Business Community.

Table 5. A Comparison between the Degree of Writing Skills Used in the Thai Business Community and the Emphasis that Instructors Put on the Topics in the Courses: Business English I and II at UTCC (private)

Kinds of Writing Communications	*Degree of Use	Emphasis of Instructors
1. Telexes	3.299	4
2. Telegrams	2.588	4
3. Memos	2.588	5
4. Request and Inquiry Letters	2.588	5
5. Replies to Requests & Inquiries	2.495	5
6. Reports	2.485	2
7. Minutes	2.206	5
8. Ackowledgement of Orders	2.196	5
9. Orders	2.186	5
10. Agendas	2.072	5
11. Credit Letters	2.010	4
12. Letters Requesting Credit Information	1.979	3
13. Claim Letters	1.938	4
14. Letters of References giving Credit Information	1.927	2
15. Collection Letters	1.906	4

Kinds of Writing Communications	*Degree of Use	Emphasis of Instructors
16. Adjustment Letters	1.875	4
17. Granting the Adjustment	1.781	4
18. Refusal of Adjustment	1.763	4
19. Sales Letters	1.667	2

5 - 4.6	represents greatest degree
4.5 - 3.6	represents great degree
3.5 - 2.6	represents moderate degree
2.5 - 1.5	represents little degree

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*Degree of use is measured in the questionnaire discussed in Part I of the paper.

The correlation between degree of use and the emphasis of instructors by using the Kendal Rank Correlation Coefficient is equal to -0.3815 being equal to .0078, which indicates that the correlation is significant at 0.01. It can therefore be said that the two courses in Business English of UTCC (private) are relevant to the use of the Thai Business Community.

The Survey of the Graduates

Ninety-three businessmen who graduated from the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy of Chulalongkorn University (CU-state) in 1980 and 1981 were surveyed in order to evaluate two business English courses (1) Social English and (2) Business Writing that they had studied.

The findings are as follows:

1. The graduates applied what they had studied from the courses to a very moderate degree only.

2. The courses are useful for their business career to a moderate degree.

3. As a whole, the graduates were more or less satisfied with what they had been taught except for the following:

3.1 Fifty-one percent of the graduates said that they had little practice in writing, and 30.11% felt they needed more practice.

3.2 Forty-three percent required the teaching of Report Writing and Letters of Application, which were not included in the curriculum in 1982 and 1983. Moreover, they required the teaching of business language in a concise, precise and correct manner.

3.3 They needed examples of letters from authentic sources which instructors were unable to provide.

3.4 They felt that writing and speaking classes should consist of less than 30 students. Generally, at CU (state) there are about 30 students per class because of the lack of experienced teaching staff.

3.5 A number of graduates reguired the teaching of technical terms which have not been taught.

4. As for the integrated course with an emphasis on spoken English, they required more speaking practice in business contexts and in particular they felt they needed to practice the giving of information.

Some Defects of Business English Writing Curricula

1. Almost all universities surveyed basically imitate foreign curricula and textbooks in determining the contents to be taught in Business English courses. The result is that students miss some topics for which the Thai Business Community had most need. Moreover, the emphasis on the contents taught are often irrelevant to their real needs. According to my survey of 8 institutes that offer Business English courses, only one private university offers business English Writing courses which are significantly relevant to the needs of the Thai Business Community as their needs have been defined in Part II.

2. English curricula in Thailand from the primary level to the university level do not facilitate competence in writing and speaking. Writing and speaking skills require sufficient practice and a sound knowledge of basics. But curricula in Thailand mainly emphasize reading. Therefore, the time allotted to writing and speaking is not sufficient for students to achieve the necessary competence.

Moreover, at university there is no connection between previous courses and Business English courses. Students do not have the appropriate basic skill to be prepared for English Business English courses. This, therefore, causes problems when they study Business English.

The problems in teaching Business English Communications.

1. Instructors.

1.1 As almost all instructors lack a background in business, they may sometimes have difficulty concerning technical terms and business contexts. Moreover, if they are new to Business English teaching, it takes time for them to prepare themselves for teaching and sometimes they may have no self-confidence.

1.2 As Thailand is a developing country, the ratio of instructors to students is extremely low. One instructor has approximately 30-50 students per one writing class. Because English is not our native language, it is hard for us to correct students' papers more than once a week.

2. Students.

They have problems in both speaking and writing communications.

2.1 In writing

2.1.1 The majority of students do not have good basic grounding in English writing skills; they can not even compose grammatically correct sentences. Before they study how to write good business English, and different forms of Business English Communications, they should possess a sound basic knowledge of writing English, but unfortunately, the majority of them do not possess this competence. In particular, students of private universities or colleges where there is less competition have problems with almost every skill. Their English is below the standard that university students should possess.

2.1.2 Students have a limited store of vocabulary, especially technical terms. Another problem is that students tend to misuse a lot of words. This is due to their lack of practice and they may have suffered from improper methods of teaching vocabulary from the very beginning.

2.2 In speaking

2.2.1 Students have insufficient practice in speaking. The English curricula in Thailand do not emphize speaking. Moreover, students never have an opportunity to practise speaking outside the class.

2.2.2 As English is used as a foreign language in Thailand and students lack confidence in speaking, they refuse to speak even in class.

3. Materials.

3.1 It is difficult to get authentic materials as most of them are considered confidential. We still need more authentic materials to be used as stimulating examples.

3.2 We do not have enough text-books from overseas in the library to be used by students as references because most of them are expensive. Moreover, it is difficult for instructors to keep up with modern text-books because it takes time to order from overseas.

3.3 The textbooks in present use are hardly proper for students. Most textbooks from overseas are too difficult while those written by Thais are often too easy and thus fail to stimulate students' interest.

4. General Problems.

4.1 The time allotted in studying Business English in all skills does not facilitate students' competence. Even in a writing course, students do not have sufficient time to practise each topic so well that they are able to apply it effectively and efficiently.

4.2 In a class, students' abilities vary so widely that instructors are unable to cope with the contents in time. Instruction is more often than not behind schedule.

4.3 Students do not have enough motivation in class. One cause is that they are poor in English. They are easily discouraged by their inabilities and mistakes.

4.4 We still lack visual aids that will save instructors' time and energy, and at the same time stimulate students.

TELEX LANGUAGE IN THAILAND: ITS IMPORTANCE, ITS TEACHING AND THE MATERIALS REQUIRED

By

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Telex Language in Thailand : Its Importance, Its Teaching and the Materials Required

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Background

Due to the advances in technology in the last decade, telecommunications have begun to play an increasingly important part in the business world. A telex is a form of written communication that is in extensive use today as it can replace any kind of letter in an effective and more efficient manner. A telex message is a simultaneous form of communication, being picked up by the recipient at the same time as it is sent. This serves the needs of businessmen who compete for business across countries or even continents. Unlike the telegram, it is convenient for both the sender and the recipient, especially since most business companies own a teleprinter or telex-machine. Moreover, a telex is accepted as a legal document in the same way as a letter.

According to a survey of 160 companies on Business English used in Thai Business Community conducted in 1982 - 1983 by Bang-Orn Savangvarorose, the telex is used in this country to a considerable degree, in fact more than any other form of written communication. Nowadays telex writing is included in the curricula of Business English writing courses in Thai Universities because its popularity and importance in the business world is well recognized.

The Role of Telexes in Thailand.

A teleprinter was first installed in Thailand 20 years ago, in 1965, at the Post and Telegraph Department. The telex has gained increasing popularity since the Thai government decided to encourage both foreign investment in Thailand and the export of Thai merchandise in the Fifth Development Plan beginning in 1981.

The following are the results of a survey, conducted in January 1985, of telexes in Thailand. The presentation will be divided into 3 parts:

1. The use of telexes in 100 of the biggest Thai companies.

2. The study of authentic telexes from 100 companies in Thailand.

3. The study of telexes taught at Thai Universities including the instructors' and students' points of view.

I. THE USE OF TELEXES IN 100 OF THE BIGGEST THAI COMPANIES.

One hundred companies were randomly selected from a piece of research entitled "600 Biggest Companies in Thailand" conducted by a group of lecturers from the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy at Thammasart University from 1977-1980.

A Questionnaire was sent to 100 companies and the findings arranged in tabular form are as follows.

Table 1. Companies Possessing a Teleprinter Machine (s)

Number of teleprinters	Frequency (Number of companies)	Percentage
1	63	63
2	21	21
3	8	8
4	4	4
6	3	3
21	1	1
Total	100	100

From Table 1, it can be seen that 63 companies out of 100 own one teleprinter each, 21 companies own 2, and 8 companies own 4 or more than 4. Bangkok Bank Limited owns 21 teleprinters.

Table 2. The Number of Telexes sent & Received per Day.

Number of telexes per day	Number of companies	Percentage
1 - 5	21	21
6 - 10	25	25
11 - 20	18	18
21 - 30	7	7
31 - 40	9	9
41 - 50	10	10
51 - 60	2	2
61 - 70	-	-
71 - 80	-	-
81 - 90	1	1
91 - 100	2	2
101 - 200	3	3
201 - 300	1	1
500	1	1

From Table 2, it can be seen that 90 companies out of 100 send and receive between 1 and 50 telexes a day. This indicates the importance of telexes for the Thai business community.

Table 3. Different Purposes in Writing Telexes for Business Communications

	$\overline{X}$	S.D	V
*1. Requests and Inquiries	3.51	1.40	39.78
2. Replies to Requests and Inquiries	2.97	1.34	45.26
3. Orders	3.52	1.40	39.66
4. Replies to Orders	2.75	1.40	50.74
5. Claims	1.99	1.15	57.80
6. Adjustments	1.45	0.78	54.02
7. Requests for Credit	2.63	1.45	55.29
8. Replies to Requests for Credit	2.22	1.28	57.83
9. Requests for Credit Information	1.82	1.16	63.63
10. Replies to Request for Credit Information	2.01	1.25	62.25
11. Collections	1.80	1.08	60.14
12. Thanks	2.71	1.13	41.73
13. Congratulations	2.35	1.10	47.00
14. Condolences	2.07	0.91	44.10
15. Making Appointments	2.83	1.12	39.56
16. Giving Information	3.41	1.26	37.07
17. Quotations	3.03	1.43	47.25
18. Others	1.83	1.50	82.22

From Table 3, it can be seen that now the telex serves a function parallel to that of a business letter. They are used to a considerable degree for orders, requests and inquiries. They are used only moderately for giving information, quotations and replies to requests and inquiries, making appointments, replies to orders and thanks. It can thus be concluded that telexes assume the role of business letters.

*The above list was drawn up as a parallel to the main functions of business letters as laid out in a variety of Business English textbooks.

Sources of Knowledge

From the survey, it was found that 35.25% of telex writers learned how to write telexes at educational institutes while 49.58% learned from their colleagues and 15.15% from text books. Seventy eight percent of businessmen think that personnel in business companies should have a fundamental knowledge of writing telexes; 20%, however, think that this is not an essential skill. Eighty-eight percent of businessmen think that telex writing should be taught at educational institutes, whereas 12% think this is not necessary.

II. THE STUDY OF AUTHENTIC TELEXES FROM 100 COMPANIES IN THAILAND.

A total of 89 authentic telexes were received from as many companies: the remaining 11 companies merely sent a few sample sentences and gave a few examples of the kind of abbreviations used.

One outstanding characteristic of the telex is that every word is written in capital letters. The other findings are as follows.

1. The Heading and the Closing of Telexes

1.1 From the study of 89 telexes from 89 companies, the headings read as follows.

Table 4. Word (s) Used to Head Telexes

Word (s) used	Frequency	Percentage
[*]1. ATTENTION	45	50.56
2. TO	10	11.24
3. TO FROM	8	8.99
4. FROM	2	2.25
5. TO FOR	2	2.25
6. FOR	1	1.12
7. TO FROM DATE	2	2.25
8. FROM TO SUBJECT	1	1.12
9. -	16	12.98
10. DEAR SIR,	1	1.12
11. DEAR + NAME	1	1.12
Total	89	100

From Table 4, it can be seen that 50.56% of telexes in Thailand begin with an "ATTENTION" line, 8.99% begin with "TO", 17.98% do not address the recipient, and only a few percent use a salutation as one would in a letter.

[*] See Appendix

1.2 The Closing of Telexes

Table 5. Word (s) Used to Close Telexes

Word (s) used	Frequency	Percentage
*1. REGARDS	42	47.19
2. BEST REGARDS	20	22.47
3. THANKS AND REGARDS	6	6.74
4. THANKS	3	3.37
5. -	17	19.10
6. SINCERELY	1	1.12
Total	89	100

From Table 5, it can be seen that 47.19% of telexes in Thailand end with "REGARDS", 22.47% end with "BEST REGARDS", 19.10% have no closing, and only 1.12% use "SINCERELY" as a complimentary close. It can be assumed that "REGARDS" is the most common form of complimentary close used in telexes.

*See Appendix

2. Characteristics of Telex Messages Studied from 100 Business Companies.

2.1 Lexical Characteristics

2.1.1 Words used in telexes are simple, short, familiar and conversational and are often the same as are used in business letters. For example, words that show courtesy are "please" or "thanks", while the word "favor" is not found at all, and "appreciate" is rarely found.

2.1.2 Abbreviations are common in telexes. Brevity is important as the cost of sending a telex has to be borne in mind, Most of the telexes studied contain a range of abbreviations, but at least the abbreviation of the phrase "referring to your telex" (RYT) and abbreviations for the words "thanks" (TKS), please (PLS), "regards" (RGDS), "and" (N), and "your" (YR) are used in almost all telexes.

Eighty-two companies out of a hundred have their own lists of abbreviations.

Out of 318 abbreviations given by a hundred companies, those that occur with a frequency higher than 10 are as follows:

1.	ADV	(advise)	20
2.	CFM	(confirm)	32
3.	DD	(dated)	11
4.	HV	(have)	15
5.	L	(letter)	13
6.	N	(and)	14
7.	PLS	(please)	62
8.	RCVD	(received)	10
9.	RE	(referring to)	11
10.	RGDS	(regards)	39
11.	TKS	(thanks)	31
12.	TLX	(telex)	34
13.	U	(you)	27
14.	V	(we)	12
15.	YR	(your)	33

Any other words occur with a frequency less than 10. It can be assumed that these 14 abbreviations at least are in common use in the Thai Business Community.

2.1.3 In writing figures, there is one outstanding characteristic, that of writing the number zero, which is written with a slash through it (Ø).

2.2 Grammatical Characteristics

The majority of telexes which were studied were concerned primarily with brevity. Short words, abbreviations were employed and the number of words used kept to a minimum. As regards the reduction in the number of words, it was found that certain structural words that are not necessary to the content are often omitted.

2.2.1 If the subject of a sentence is the first person personal pronoun "I" or "We", these are often omitted. For example.

(We are) PLS TO MEET AND DISCUSS WITH YOU IN BANGKOK OFFICE

2.2.2 Articles which will not cause any misunderstanding when omitted are left out. For example:

PLS ENSURE (that a) COPY (of the) DOCUMENTS ARE SENT WITH (the) CONSIGNMENT

2.2.3 Prepositions which are not important to the content are omitted. For example:

PLS PHONE ME (at) 5854632 (on) TUESDAY 12 BKK TIME (between) 7:00 - 8:00.

2.2.4 Punctuation marks are not considered very important in telex writing and consequently are not used to a very great degree.

2.2.5 The verb "to be" in the passive voice is often omitted. Moreover, the passive voice is found to be reduced to the past participle if it is used in a subordinate clause. For example:

TLX US FLIGHT DETAILS WHEN (they are) SHIPPED

2.3 Discourse Pattern

2.3.1 Telex Language is concise and contains no repetitions or irrelevant information, which is also an essential characteristic of a good business letter. Moreover, the language used is straightforward. Introductory phrases such as, "I would like to inform you that ....." or "This is to advise you that .....," are not used in telex language.

2.3.2 Transitional words are not used much in telexes. If a telex message is long, it is divided into short paragraphs to avoid confusion and at the same time to facilitate understanding. Simple transitional words like "and" or "because" are by far the most commonly used. From the study of 89 telexes from as many companies, it was found that "and" was used to express addition, "because" was used to express cause and result.

2.4 The Paragraph

Telex messages are always ahort. If they are long, they are divided into short paragraphs of about 1-3 sentences. Moreover, some companies number the paragraph (1, 2, 3 .....) whereas some list each paragraph alphabetically (AAA, BBB, CCC .....). This will help the reader's comprehension.

III. THE TEACHING OF TELEXES IN THAILAND AND THE MATERIALS USED.

In Thailand there are 13 state universities and 3 private universities. Four of the state universities offer courses in Business English, but of these courses, one is for teachers of Business Communications only, while yet another is a very short introductory course which follows the Bell Crest Series of Great Britain. It can thus be said that only two state universities offer truly comprehensive Business English courses. The curricula of these two state universities allows for instruction in telex writing. Private universities, which are in close touch with the business community, most certainly include telex writing in their Business English writing courses.

The Materials Used on Teaching Telex Writing.

Since there are only a few text-books which mention telexes at all, instructors have to depend primarily on authentic telexes from business companies.

As for the material used at Chulalongkorn University, we collect authentic telexes from business companies and select only those which are well-written, that is, those which are brief and concise, contain suitable examples of common abbreviations, and the reduction of words in which the text has been reduced in some way, and the language used is straightforward and simple. Then we try to set up a number of rules or guidelines from the study of those telexes.

As at Chulalongkorn University, the 3 private universities likewise depend primarily on authentic telexes.

Given the lack of suitable materials in Thailand we need to import text-books from overseas which deal at length with the subject of telex writing in a practical fashion.

Telex Teaching

At Chulalongkorn University, the aim of teaching telex writing is to present authentic well-written messages as examples. Instructors explain to the students what a telex is, and what the important points in telex writing are, namely that the message must be clear, concise and easily understood, not just brief. Then, students practise decoding and encoding telexes.

Another method is to utilize precis because a telex involves brevity. Students practise drafting telexes from business letters. Guidelines to writing together with some common abbreviations are taught through text analysis. The teaching of telexes takes only two hours out of a total of 42 hours taken up by the whole business writing course. However, students have an opportunity for self-study and practice through the exercises provided.

Telexes are taught after students have mastered different forms of business letters since these forms are the basis of business communication. Moreover, students should first possess the necessary writing skills, since for the sake of brevity, they should know how to reduce clauses and shorten sentences into phrases without losing the correct meaning.

As for other universities, the teaching is almost the same, that is students learn by means of authentic telexes and practice. Students have to expand and reduce messages along with learning some abbreviations, although not too much emphasis is placed on the latter.

From a survey of 20 instructors of Business English and 143 students of 5 institutes, namely: Chulalongkorn, the Graduate Institute of Business Administration of Chulalongkorn, The University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, Thammasat and Durakitbandit, it was found that all instructors agree that telex-writing should be included in Business English Writing courses since it is becoming increasingly essential to the business community. Moreover, some instructors even think that it should be an optional advanced course for business students in the near future.

As for the 143 students, it was found that 85.31% felt they needed telex teaching while 14.69% did not think it was necessary to teach it at university. Those who wanted to study telexes thought that if they knew how to write telexes correctly and precisely, they would work more efficiently, and it would help them conduct their business more effectively. Those who did not want to study telexes thought that they could learn by themselves while working and if they could write business letters, then they could also write telexes.

The Problems in Telex Teaching.

Instructors

1. Since there is no international text available, this leads to uncertainty as to which style is the most acceptable and instructors have to rely upon authentic messages, which vary widely in style. Consequently, this may lessen their confidence in teaching the subject. It is, however, possible to provide teachers with a number of guidelines to follow as laid down in Part II, item 2 of this analysis. (cf. pp.9-12)

2. As one instructor has to be responsible for about 30 students per group, it is difficult for him or her to correct students' papers more than once a week.

Students

1. The majority of students are not proficient in writing. They have hardly even mastered the basics of the language. It is a great problem for them to practise the reduction of clauses or phrases because this may have an adverse effect on their writing skills.

2. Students do not have sufficient opportunity to develop their telex-writing skill, mainly due to the time constraints of the curriculum. Students have but a limited time to study the many different forms of business communications.

Conclusions

As was revealed in the surveys, telex language plays an essential part in the Thai business community. Both instructors and students of Business English also realize its importance, since a telex can be an appropriate substitute for any kind of business letter in the competitive business world.

Telex writing is included in intensive business writing courses in universities in Thailand. Since there are only a few text books available on telexes, the instructors of each university prepare their own materisls which are based primarily on the study of authentic telexes. However, we still need more text-books from overseas to use as reference materials.

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APPENDIX

Authentic telexes

Example 1

72251 SIAMENT TH

28/11/1982

TO: SCT LSA 696335

SCC-129/TR/82

ATTN : KHUN PREECHA

1) RE : BLEACH SACK KRAFT

TKS FOR YR ATTN DLVRY PROBLEM HV BEEN SOLVED, CANNOT ACCEPT YR OFFER. WILL CONTACT YOU AGAIN FOR NEXT ENQUIRY.

2) CALCIUM ALUMINATE CEMENT

YR PRC ARE 53% AND 31% HIGHER THAN THE LOWEST OFFER WE HV DECIDED TO BUY FROM.

RGDS

DUANG/PROCUREMENT DEPT MGR

SIAMENT

Example 2

BKK GA

0230221930.88

81171 UNICARB TH

OCT 31 1217 023036

221930 UCCE UR

BAN 1014 OCTOBER 31, 1984

TO : E M COLLINS - UCC, DANBURY

CC : R RAMASWAMI - SGP

A C AUNARIO - MAN

PLS SEND NEW SPECS N CATALOGS OF DEWARS TO UCTHAI.

TKS N RGDS

ARAYA V.

= BANO12

NNNN

LLLLL

1218 000.7

Example 3

BKK GA
0412164994++
87359 BOONWAN TH
JAN 11 1708 052035
2164994 INCO D

87359 BOONWAN TH

TO : INTERCABLE VERLAG GMBH
FM : BOON WAN CO., LTD.

REF OUR TLX DD 22/9/84 WE DIDN'T RCVD 1982 AND 1983 TLX DIRECTORYS
PLS SEND YR TLX DIRECTORYS TO US SO WE WL PAY U FR USD 670.00

2164994 INCO DMMMMM
1710 000.8

Example 4

BKK GA

087 39900++

87358 TDIBKOK TH

JAN 08 1529 041110

CORMSI RS39900

87358 TDIBKOK TH

8/1/85

REF 85/010

TO N CORMAN

YR CS-2772 OF TODAY, PLSD TO MEET MR HAN FAASE AT OUR OFFICE AT 9 AM. HOTEL RESERVATION AT DUSIT THANI MADE ACCORDINGLY.

RGDS

SAW

THAI DAIRY IND

CORMSI RS39900

87358 TDIBKOK TH

MMMMM

1529 000.8

Example 5

TELEX OUT # 113

31/002 TORC 066

BKK GA sent on 10/1/85 time: 15.29 hrs.

08724530++

82695 TORC TH

JAN 10 1529 040414

CGOBANK RS24530

FROM THE THAI OIL REFINERY CO., LTD., BANGKOK

TO FIRST NATIONAL BANK SINGAPORE

ATTN: MR. BHARAT

REF TORCHO/113 10/1/85

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CLINICALLY SPEAKING: ESP FOR REFUGEE NURSING STUDENTS

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CLINICALLY SPEAKING: ESP FOR REFUGEE NURSING STUDENTS

The Program's Need and Early Development

Since 1975, Minnesota has been one of about a dozen states most actively involved in programs for the initial placement of refugees, and in the late seventies waves of secondary migration from around the United States brought even more refugees to the Twin Cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. This strained social service capacities. Health care facilities found themselves beset with large numbers of non-English speaking clients who knew little about American medical practices. In an effort to solve the communication problem, a network of refugee interpreters was organized and made available. However,the Interpreters Project was seen as a temporary measure and there remained the long-term problem of how to educate the refugee population about American health care attitudes and practices. Health care providers agreed that part of the answer would be the hiring of bilingual health care professionals; but few qualified individuals were available. Although a large number of area refugees had formerly been health professionals or paraprofessionals, a series of factors inhibited those individuals from entering health care training programs. Among those factors were limitations in English language proficiency and in financial resources.[1.]

Dr. Amos Deinard of the University of Minnesota Department of Pediatrics (UMDP) began exploring the idea of organizing some type of training program which would aid those refugees in redeveloping their health care skills, ultimately in order to help the refugee community at large. Together with the American Refugee Committee (ARC), a locally-based non-profit agency, UMDP submitted a proposal for funding such a program to the Department of Health and Human Services. A group of Southeast Asian refugees were to be retrained as Licensed Practical Nurses (LPNs) or Physician's Assistants. The two sponsoring agencies would recruit students, provide up to one year of education, and assist trainees in first obtaining licensure/certification and then in finding employment.[2.] At the same time, ARC submitted a second proposal -- a request for Targeted Assistance funds from the Hennepin County CETA office. ARC proposed a Health Occupations program which would assess, train and place thirty area refugees within an 18-month period.

The proposals for retraining and for training new health professionals had as their overall goal the eventual placement of bilingual professionals in area health care facilities. The funds were forthcoming and the projects combined to become the first program of its kind in the United States.

The Minneapolis Area Vocational Technical Institute (MTI) was contracted to develop a special practical nursing program to meet the needs of a refugee population. The program would follow the same course of study as the school's regular LPN program, but classes would be offered late in the afternoon and in the evenings to accomodate those refugees already holding full-time jobs. Because UMDP and ARC recognized that the refugees' language proficiency might cause problems technical studies, an English as a Second Language course was added to the technical curriculum. The Minnesota English Center (MEC) was contracted to provide an English for licensed practical nursing science component to the program.

Intake and Screening

Notices about the program were distributed to social service agencies and refugee organizations. Sixty-one refugees indicated an interest in the program. MEC helped to develop an initial screening interview to assess potential candidates' language proficiency. The interview consisted of several questions, some of a general nature, others more specific, about educational backround and technical experience. (See Appendix A.)

The candidates were then given the Minnesota Battery, a series of language tests consisting of the Michigan Test of Aural Comprehension, forms 1-3, the Michigan Test of Language Proficiency, Forms G and H, and the Minnesota Composition. In order to assess the general educational backround of the candidates, MTI administered three additional tests: the Structure Test of English

Language (STEL), the Gates-McGinnity Test of Reading Comprehension, and the MTI Math Test, a general math test consisting of 24 basic math problems.

On the basis of all the test results, but with particular weight given to the Michigan Test of Aural Comprehension, the students were divided into two ability groups. The upper group of students had STEL scores above 500 and Aural Comprehension scores above 70.[3.]

The Program

In March, 1984, 42 students began a one-month intensive academic program to further determine their scholastic abilities. In addition to Lao, Hmong, Vietnamese and Cambodian refugees, the group included three Eastern European and two Ethiopian refugees. Courses in medical terminology, reading, math, and ESL were offered four hours per evening, five nights per week. At the conclusion of this pre-vocational program, the students were individually evaluated by the staff. They determined that all of the students were capable of studying in the nursing program, although several students were identified as having limited English proficiency. At this time, students were redistributed in the two groups in an effort to maintain a more consistent level of language ability within each group.

The nursing program was structured so that the first quarter of instruction consisted of an introduction to nursing principles and practices, a clinical experience in a long-term health care facility, and a three-week Nursing Assistant course. (For a complete academic curriculum, see Appendix B.) Plans were for all the students to complete the Nursing Assistant course and obtain Nursing Assistant certification, even though some of the students would not be able to go on to complete the praactical nursing program.

MTI requires that its regular LPN students either possess a high school diploma or pass a high school equivalency exam (GED) before admission. At the request of program sponsors, this requirement was suspended with the condition that the refugees would have to possess this credential before graduation. The ESL instructors were asked to incorporate GED practice material into the language curriculum.

In April, 1984, 33 students began the practical nursing program. Their course of study began with one hour of English and three hours of technical coursework per evening, four nights per week. The English instructors decided to spend two hours per week on special purposes English, with the remaining two hours spent on developing skills needed to pass the GED. The first clinical experience was scheduled to begin midway through the first academic quarter, with the students placed in a long-term health care facility.

Although the technical materials used in this program were the same as in the school's regular LPN curriculum, technical instructors modified their lectures to meet the needs of students with limited English. According to the Technical Coordinator, "Lectures were simply presented and all medical terms were written on the blackboard to assist in notetaking, ensure correct spelling, and reinforce pronunciation."[4]

Testing technical knowledge was a problem at first. MTI requires all its LPN students to pass departmental standardized tests with a score of at least 80%.

> The first test was very difficult for the students because of language complexities and American cultural references. During the following two tests, the students were allowed as much time as they needed and could use an English dictionary.[5]

As the students grew more proficient in test-taking, the dictionaries were eliminated and time limits reinstated.

At the conclusion of the first quarter, the staff met to evaluate the students again and to assess the effectiveness of the program. It was noted that the group with the higher language proficiency was progressing at a much faster pace. Several members of the lower proficiency group had language related problems which caused concern among the technical faculty. At this point, several of the lowest level language students were told that they could not continue in the LPN training program. They were given the option, however, of entering a three-week home health care aide training program, which would give them further job opportunities.

The staff noted that the rigorous schedule -- academic classes every evening, clinical experience on alternating weekends -- was creating a snese of "burn out" on the part of the students, many of whom already held full-time jobs. For this reason, the schedule was revised for second quarter so that the students would only work at the clinical site on Thursday evenings and alternating Friday evenings or Saturdays. This change in schedule resulted in an extension of the length of the program. Instead of a year, the course would now take at least one and a half years to complete in comparison with 46 weeks for full-time MTI day students.[6.]

As the second quarter began, a total of 18 students were still enrolled in the program. The higher proficiency group received only one hour of language instruction per week, although the lower group continued to study English one hour each night. The clinical experience shifted to a surgical ward of a large metropolitan hospital.

The third quarter brought a reduction of Engish hours for the lower group. The higher group was given the option of an hour of language tutorial each week. The lower proficiency group met two hours per week, with class time spent on sharpening communicative skills. This would be the last quarter of English.

English Curriculum

Needs assessment is an integral part of ESP curriculum planning. Widdowson divideds needs into two categories: process oriented needs (what the learner needs to do to acquire the language) and goal oriented needs (what the learner needs to do with the language once he has learned it.)[7.] As we planned our curriculum, we tried to obtain information about both types. We interviewed nurses and nursing instructors in an effort to learn more about the language of nursing. We surveyed the nursing texts and manuals our students would be using, looking for recurring grammatical structures. We also looked for ESP resources which would help in our task. Because the English instructors would also be working with GED skills, we talked to local Adult Education teachers who had experience teaching GED to students with limited English proficiency. We also secured a GED practice test and GED review materials.

Since our students were under the special constraint of having to study for the GED at the same time as they were studying technical material, we divided our curriculum into two parts, taught by two different instructors. The medical English component would concentrate on teaching the productive skills of speaking and reading in a medical context. The GED component would work with the receptive skills of listening and reading. AS ESL teachers, we saw our main focus as teaching language skills rather than GED content materials. Those materials were used as samples of English by which we could teach reading and listening. We hoped that exposure to the materials in this way would itself be a preparation for the GED.

The curriculum initially planned for the medical English classes to give the students a facility with the kinds of technical constructions they would come in contact with in their nursing classes and to prepare them for the kinds of spoken English they would be using in the practice of nursing as well as in the technical classroom. We soon realized that there was also a need to prepare the students for the special writing skills needed to write charts.

There isn't always a clear line between the kind of curriculum necessary to present the reading and writing skills needed for the nursing classroom and the curriculum necessary to promote the special oral/aural skills a nurse or a nursing student needs. It seemed clear enough, however, that the ESP materials that we had available to us related more to the students' academic needs than to their needs in terms of practical speaking skills. We relied heavily on the kinds of materials traditionally used to teach technical English to teach three things: describing spatial relationships, describing processes and procedures, and using definitions.

Such academic skills were often also things they needed on the job. The ability to describe spatial relationships accurately in note just a skill the nurse needs in the classroom. Likewise, a nurse needs to be able to describe procedures to patients, since one of the functions of a nurse is to teach the patient. But we were aware that there were other kinds of needs less related to the reading and writing skills they needed as nursing students. From the beginning, we wanted to foster an atmosphere where students felt free to ask questions, so that this might be carried over into work situations as well as class situations. We decided to work with question formation at the very beginning of the coursework. It also seemed to us that one of the most common verbal functions that a practical nurse has to perform is to make requests, and that in the situation of a hospital, a nurse should be sensitive to different ways of making requests in different situations.

The curriculum for many ESP classes will have as a specific component the teaching of medical vocabulary. At the beginning of their program, our students took a three-week class in medical terminology, taught by teachers from the health occupation faculty. This class concentrated on common medical prefixes and suffixes. The ESL instructors also worked with medical vocabulary within a limited framework. For about a month and a half, in connection with the teaching of charting, we spent regulary time going over a list of words (part of the LPN curriculum) contrasting vocabulary appropriate for charting and everyday vocabulary. We will discuss this list more later. For now, we will comment that the focus of the activity was, just as much as the teaching of vocabulary, the appropriateness of different vocabulary for different situations.

This activity represented in large part the extent to which our curriculum focused on the teaching of medical vocabulary. It would be presumptuous for us to say that the students didn't need to learn medical vocabulary; but this need was to a great extent being met by the nursing curriculum itself, and we found a greater need for us to spend time on the kinds of sub-technical vocabulary that was equally an element in the writing in their texts, but which a nursing instructor might not feel the need to explain.

The writing of medical records -- charting -- is a specialized skill that has to be taught to native speakers of English as well as to non-native speakers of Englsih. We realized that one of the biggest challenges to our students would be learning how to chart. Medical records are written not only with a specialized vocabulary, but in a specialized style. Techniques for writing medical records have become more complex within the last 14 years with the introduction of "Problem Oriented" charting, in which a nurse is asked to distinguish between the patient's subjective observation of his own condition and the nurse's objective record of the case. The nurse must also give an assessment of what the conditions mean and what kind of care is needed. Styles of charting will vary from institution to institution, and the nurse must have a certain flexibility within a system which is itself changing. The essentials of charting are, again, part of the nursing curriculum itself, and certain aspects of charting -- the accuracy of what is written in terms of the condition of actual patients -- can only be taught by nursing instructors. But we felt we could be helpful in developing in the students a sense of vocabulary, style, and grammatical accuracy for charting. Later, we will give examples of materials we have used to teach charting English.

As we actually taught the class our curriculum changed in a number of ways from the originally planned curriculum.

First of all -- what perhaps is predictable -- we found it impossible to maintain the distinction of having the teacher oriented to GED English restrict herself to teaching reading and listening skills and the teacher oriented to medical English restrict himself to teaching speaking and writing skills. Although the medical English instructor avoided teaching listening, he found that reading was too central to the specialized English needs of the students to be ignored. The class relied heavily on an English textbook which is organized around a series of reading passages. The instructor also found it helpful to occasionally work with passages he had selected from the nursing textbooks that students were using; the prose in these texts was often startingly opaque to the students.

Second, there was more of a grammatical focus to the curriculum that we had planned. It's hard to make generalizations about the academic level of the students, but many of them had a background in English only in survival-skills English classes, not the type of classes aimed at academic preparation that students who are studying technical English generally have. This meant that, in addition to learning technical English, there was often a need just to learn English, and we worked on grammar in order to build a foundation on which we could later build more technical skills. Sometimes we adapted materials designed to teach grammar and gave them a more medical focus, other times we simply used standard language materials to teach standard grammatical skills.

Lastly our curriculum changed in that we came to feel the need for an expanded curriculum aimed at the speaking needs of the students. In general, the understanding among language teachers of the speaking skills needed in nursing is still very limited, and much more study will eventually have to be done.

Maybe the most obvious need was that of exercises designed to help the students know how to make small-talk with patients, a skill which, for the low-level students, proved particularly difficult to acquire. We tried to include communicative activities in the class in the form of open-ended questions which the students were asked to complete, role plays and informal question and answer sessions. Students were also asked to give short, spontaneous talks about particular problems they'd had the previous week.

In an effort to encourage an awareness of the world around them, we assigned our students to read newspaper articles and listen for reports about the various artificial heart recipients. This proved to be a very effective teaching tool. It was an on-going story that was of interest to our students, and we could use tapes of the news reports for listening exercises and the news articles themselves for reading practice. The stories also provided a source for the type of layman's mecial language which we wanted our students to recognize.

Materials

We would now like to discuss some specific examples of materials developed for the project. In most cases, the materials we are going to discuss can be said to reflect our search for communicative frameworks relevant to a medical context that the students recognized through which we would be able to practice specific technical constructions and grammatical forms. For example, at the very beginning of our program we worked on question formation. After reviewing the rules for question formation and practicing them in simple exercises, we tried to establish a link to situations where nurses ask questions in their work. We had the students role play a situation where a nurse takes a patient's medical history. First we went over a simple dialogue representing such a situation. Then the students worked in groups of two. One student was given a standard medical history card -- the kind found in a clinic -- with the information filled in to represent an imaginary patient. That student assumed the identity of the patient, and the other student, representing the nurse, took his medical history. In the process, the "nurse" had to use most of the different question forms.

Our work on descriptions of spatial relationships likewise aimed ultimately at finding contexts where the skills they were developing could be made meaningful. We started by reviewing the meanings of various prepositions. In a nursing class the medical English instructor observed, the techniques for working with blind patients being discussed gave him an idea for an exercise of the sort advocated by Gillian Brown and George Yule in Teaching the Spoken Language.[8] The students were divided into groups of three and one student in each group was given a picture of a tray of food as it might be given to a patient (see Appendix C.) The student was then given the task of describing the position of different items on the tray as though he were describing it to a blind patient. As a test of the accuracy of the description, the other students in the group, who couldn't see the picture, were asked to draw a picture of the tray as the student described it to them. In actual work with blind patients, a nurse will describe the position of food on a round plate by telling the patient what hour the food would be at if the plate were a clock. For example: "Your potatoes are at four o'clock and your beef is at seven o'clock." The students were encouraged to do this, but they were also encouraged to use different prepositions to describe the position of other items on the tray or items on a rectangular plate.

(Now, in actual work with a blind patient, a nurse might be able to avoid some of this verbal interaction. One student, who was working as a nursing assistant, said that when she served food to blind patients she simply took their hand and moved it to the positions of different items in order to let them know where they were. We do not claim that an item practiced in an English class will always be the most practical solution to a nurse's communication needs. Nevertheless, the kind of verbal interaction that the students practiced is something that could easily at least be part of the interaction.)

We also did more traditional exercises relating to spatial relationships by working on the meaning of passive constructions such as is located, is divided, is connected to, is found, and is enclosed. The students were encouraged to use these in descriptions of medical objects. The more advanced students were given a passage from an anatomy textbook with constructions of this kind deleted, and were asked to fill in the appropriate terms.

Appendix D consists of exercises dealing with relative clauses. The students also worked with these structures in the course of practicing definition formation. The handouts which follow are intended to illustrate ways that more general grammatical concepts can be adapted to an ESP situation. They are patterned after exercises developed by Eric Nelson at the Minnesota English Center and described in the 1984 MinneTESOL Journal.

Once again, the form of relative clauses had thoroughly been discussed and practiced in simpler exercises before these more communicative exercises were used. In the first exercise, the student is asked to answer a series of questions. The questions each ask the student to distinguish between two options, so that his answer should and in most cases has to included a relative clause. By nature of the questions, the student is made to practice the formation of different kinds of relative clauses; but at the same time he is asked to make a distinction in meaning -- a distinction that specifically refers to information which the student has been studying in his nursing classes.

The next exercise relies on the same principle, We use restrictive relative clauses when we need to distinguish between things. Thus the students will be likely to use relative clauses when they are asked to distinguish between a series of patients, which is what the writing assignment asks them to do. The handout listed a series of patients and pieces of information that identified them. The students were asked to describe how a nurse would interact with each of the patients. Again, the patients described in the exercise are in situations which our students were familiar with. We did not necessarily want the students to use relative clauses in all the sentences they wrote, but we wanted them to realize that in some cases it would be natural to do so. We hoped to establish the link between grammatical form and communication relevant to the nursing context.

We worked in a number a ways on teaching the students to describe procedures, both in writing and in speaking. We were able to rely heavily on visual aids we found at MTI. A simple transparency showing the four steps in cleaning a bed pan was used repeatedly to practice different ways of describing procedures -- with third person subjects, with imperatives, and with passives-- and to practice different ways of expressing the time relation within a procedure. MTI also has a series of in-house videotapes illustrating some basic nursing procedures. Using the tapes without the accompanying soundtrack, the ESP instructor asked the students to first explain the procedure and then to create their own dialogues for the situation.

Appendix E. is a checklist which is used by the technical instructors to test the students on their clinical skills. We include this as an example of another sort of "map" which an English teacher might look for -- one which gives an indication of a procedure without actually writing it in standard prose. We felt that if a student could transform the checklist into a written description of a procedure, then that student probably understood the kinds of things we were trying to teach. (We did find that this was a very difficult task for the students, and we had to explain very carefully the style of writing in the checklist.)

A different kind of activity has as an advantage the fact that the students were actually required to successfully convey the steps of a procedure to another student. The activity made use of two taperecorders. We divided the class into two groups. Each group listened to a different tape -- one a simple description of a nursing procedure and one a simple description of a physiological process. Each group was told to listen to the tape until they felt that each person in the group was prepared to repeat the description in his own words. Then, each student was paired with a student from the other group, and each student was asked to teach the process or procedure to the person he was paired with. Finally the students returned to their original groups and, as a group, tried to reconstruct the description the other group had listened to. An exercise like this is an exercise in listening as well as speaking, and an exercise in remembering technical material conveyed to the student in the target language.

We will only discuss the work we did no practicing requests to the extent of pointing to Appendix F . This handout was created by asking a nursing instructor to supply a list of situations where a nurse might make requests, and later by asking the students a similar question. We used this handout to discuss the different ways it might be appropriate to word a request in different situations. We are also including it because we think that it gives a sense of some of the different ways in which a nurse has to interact with people.

Appendix G. has to do with charting. The first page is a page from the materials about charting supplied by the Health Occupations Program at MTI. We spent class time reviewing these word lists in preparation for later work on charting. As you notice, on the left side of the page is a word for a physical phenomenon that the nurse might observe, usually the everyday word for it. On the right side is the vocabulary which would be used for charting. What we would like to point out, is that many times the vocabulary on the left would be just as difficult, or as unfamiliar for the students as the vocabulary on the right. For most of our students, the word "belching" is no easier than the word "eructation", "flabby" is just as difficult as "flaccid." So we were faced with the task, not only of teaching them the charting vocabulary, but of making clear to them that this vocabulary is not always appropriate when they are talking to a patient, or, in fact, in most contexts other that charting.

The last part of Appendix G. shows an example of a chart that a nursing instructor wrote for us and the same information rewritten into more standard prose. This is a simmple "narrative" chart. It makes no attempt to incorporate the innovations of "Problem Oriented" charting. The chart differs from standard prose in a number of ways. In incorporates abbreviations; it deletes the subjects of sentences; it generally deletes the verb to be; and it deletes possessive pronouns and articles. We are tempted to say that it incorporates many of the eccentricities of usage that our students are liable to fall into anyway, except that, because of other deletions, verb endings become especially important to the meaning conveyed.

After reviewing the rules for charting style, we gave the students sets of individual sentences like those in the middle of Appendix G. and asked them to change them into charting style. Later, we gave the students the passage in standard prose and asked them to turn it into the kind of writing they would use for charting. (We found similar exercises in a standard nursing text, Writing Skills for Nurses,[10] that we were able to adapt for use with our students.) When the students began charting in clinical, we noticed the tendency to adopt charting abbreviations in other writing contextx. We never totally succeeded in weaning them of this habit. On one occasion, we turned the exercise around and asked the students to change an example of charting into standard prose. We still feel that it is important, not only to teach medical English skills with a technical orientation, but to teach students to distinguish when these styles are appropriate and when they are not.

Problems

We believe that by discussing the problems we faced we can give a better idea of the dynamics of our project. Some of the difficulties we faced are common to situations where English for Specific Purposes is taught: lack of suitable materials, the absence of scheduled time for interaction between English teachers and technical staff, the absence of suitable assessment tools, and the limitations of a situation where students regard the language class as less important than other classes. But our problems were also colored by our specific situation and the fact that our project was the first of its kind. We felt that we were exploring new territory; we made original mistakes, and we learned from them.

American publishing companies have only recently recognized the need for ESP texts, so the choice of ready-made materials was not large. While there are several English-for-medicine texts available, most are designed for students preparing to become physicians. (For a review of available texts oriented toward nursing, see Krochmal, 1984.[11.]) Because our students had limited English proficiency, such texts were generally not suitable for class. We settled on Nucleus: Nursing Science, a British text aimed at intermediate-level students. The text is well-organized notionally and has many well-drawn charts, diagrams, and illustrations. It helped provide a frame for our curriculum, and it provided useful reading passages which helped orient our students to the style of technical textbooks; but it only partially met our needs.

More and more as we worked on the project, we were impressed with the complexity of the communication skills a nurse must have. The role of the nurse is sometimes described as attending to the needs of the patient as a whole person, as compared to a doctor, whose role is merely to diagnose and treat illness.[12.] This means that in some respects the communication skills a nurse must have are greater than those a doctor must have. Part of the function of a nurse is to translate medical information into terms that the patient can understand. This means that the non-native speaker studying nursing is learning at least two registers: the register of medical discourse and the register that the nurse must use when she explains something to the patient. Some of the materials developed for our project represent an attempt to explore ways of teaching the oral skills which nurses need to develop. We feel the need for more understanding in our field of what, in language learning terms, these needs are and how they can be taught.

In part, our perspective comes from the fact that, instead of teaching the students ESP before they entered their academic program, we were teaching them while they were taking technical coursework. This is not an ideal situation and it added to the pressure on the students. It also put us in the position where we could not ignore the fact that we were preparing the students, not just for their academic work, but for their work as nurses -- we were forced, in Widdownson's terms, to be more "goal oriented".

It is partly because of a lack of ready-made materials that the lack of communication between technical and language instructors becomes an issue. We had desks in the nursing office, so there was a chance to ask nursing professionals about technical information, but since the classes were held in the vening, many instructors didn't come to school until the language teachers were already in the classroom. There were several technical instructors involved in the project at any given time, and this made it even more difficult to share information.

We tried to deal with the problem in several ways. Something as simple as changing cubicle assignments helped to make nursing instructors more accessible when they were in the office. The ESP instructor periodically attended technical classes in order to expand his knowledge of the vocational curriculum. Once the students started their clinical training, English classes were held at the clincial site, and we found that this gave us a better perspective on the details of the clinical practice our students were participating in. On one occasion an ESL instructor visited a nursing station and observed as far as privacy laws permitted. Beginning in the middle of the first quarter, we held regularly scheduled meetings with the nursing program coordinators and representitives from the sponsoring agencies. At these meeting it was possible to discuss special problems which individual students had encountered. The meetings helped give us insight into the communication needs of specific students and a better sense of the kinds of interactions that took place with patients in the clinical setting. We strongly recommend that any program where there are both technical instructors and language instructors have regularly scheduled time for interaction among staff.

Some of the difficulties we faced teaching English had to do with the fact that we were working with refugees. Most of our students had a backgronnd in survival-skills English and we felt that our lower proficiency language students, especially, lacked a solid foundation in basic ESL material and this affected the kind of material we were able to present to them. One thing that this meant was that the length of time originally scheduled for English classes had to be extended. A more serious problem, though, was that, in the estimation of some of the instructors, the lower-level students often tended to learn things -- what they were being taught in nursing classes as well as what they were being taught in the English classes -- by rote, without a real assimilation of what the materials meant.

Perhaps the fact that as refugees our students had had more practical experience of life than most university students had something to do with the fact that they were sometimes puzzeled or impatient with more academically oriented materials. They seemed to want materials that were concretely learnable and did not always seem to understand the purpose of activities more oriented toward skills than knowledge, or learner-centered activities which asked them to generate original responses for the class.

Fatigue was often a factor. Besides pursuing a very stiff academic schedule, our students often held full-time jobs and also tried to maintain families. We believe this will often be the case when students are refugees. In any ESP program there will be a tendency for the students to give priority to their technical classes over their language classes, and the time constraints on our students aggravated this problem. From the beginning of the program, we recognized the need to limit the amount of homework we assigned; but we didn't feel that it was in the interest of the students to avoid homework completely. The students regarded their nursing coursework as extremely important, and while they realized language class was also important, they gave priority to their technical studies. Sometimes the students' work was incomplete and other times, even though the students completed their homework, they indicated their frustration about their lack of time to do it.

The question of assessment will pose a difficult problem in most situations where ESP is taught. Standard tests, which measure proficiency in the 'standard skills' do not really test what has been taught. On the other hand, teacher-made tests may not give program administrators scores which they regard as valid.

This question became one of our biggest problems. We gave the students the Minnesota Battery -- the test they had taken before starting the program -- at the beginning of the second quarter, and although the results were instructive and helped give the students a feeling of making progress, we were conscious that this in no way assessed their ability to use language as nurses. Another assessment tool, the GED, was built into our program as a requirement, but this was not an assessment tool we were happy with. As ESL instructors we argued that the cultural bias of certain sections of the GED -- in particular the social science section -- kept it from being a valid measure of the academic skills of refugees. We found that to ask a student to study history while in the midst of an intensive vocational training program was a distraction and a source of anxiety. The vocational school argued that,since their other nursing students are required to pass the GED, it would be unfair to waive that requirement for a special group unless we could find an equally valid alternative. The issue was discussed at length and a compromise was eventually reached whereby our students were required to pass only the science and math sections of the GED, which they all did.

Part of our dissatisfaction with using any standardized test stemmed from the fact that such a requirement seemed to imply to students that preparing and passing such a test is adequate preparation for the English skills they will need as nurses, which is in no way true. There still remains the more general need for a test that will adequately assess the language skills of nursing students.

-- John Marston and Adele G. Hansen

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Appendix A.

DRAFT OF INTERVIEW FORMAT FOR REFUGEE RETRAINING PROJECT

- Name
- Date of Birth
- Address
- Phone number
    - work
    - home
- Native Country
- Native Language
    - spoken
    - written
- Health Background
    - work experience (setting, length of time, duties, etc.)
    - educational experience
    - licensure/credentials
- Interest in participating
    - current work status:
        - type of work
        - hours
        - transportation
    - financial status/sources of income
    - home situation
        - breadwinner
        - number of dependents
        - day care
- Conversational English (i.e., during the interview, how does the individual communicate?)
- Information to be provided to the prospective retrainees:
    types of programs, time of classes, study commitment, costs/financial assistance, contractual commitment/expectations

Appendix B.

PRACTICAL NURSING CURRICULUM

Level I - Quarter I

Nursing Principles and Practices I including Laboratory Practice
(3 week nursing assistant course)

Level II - Quarter I

Nursing Principles and Practices II - Clinical Nursing I
Body Structure and Function
Nutrition
Professional Vocational Relationships

Level III - Quarter II

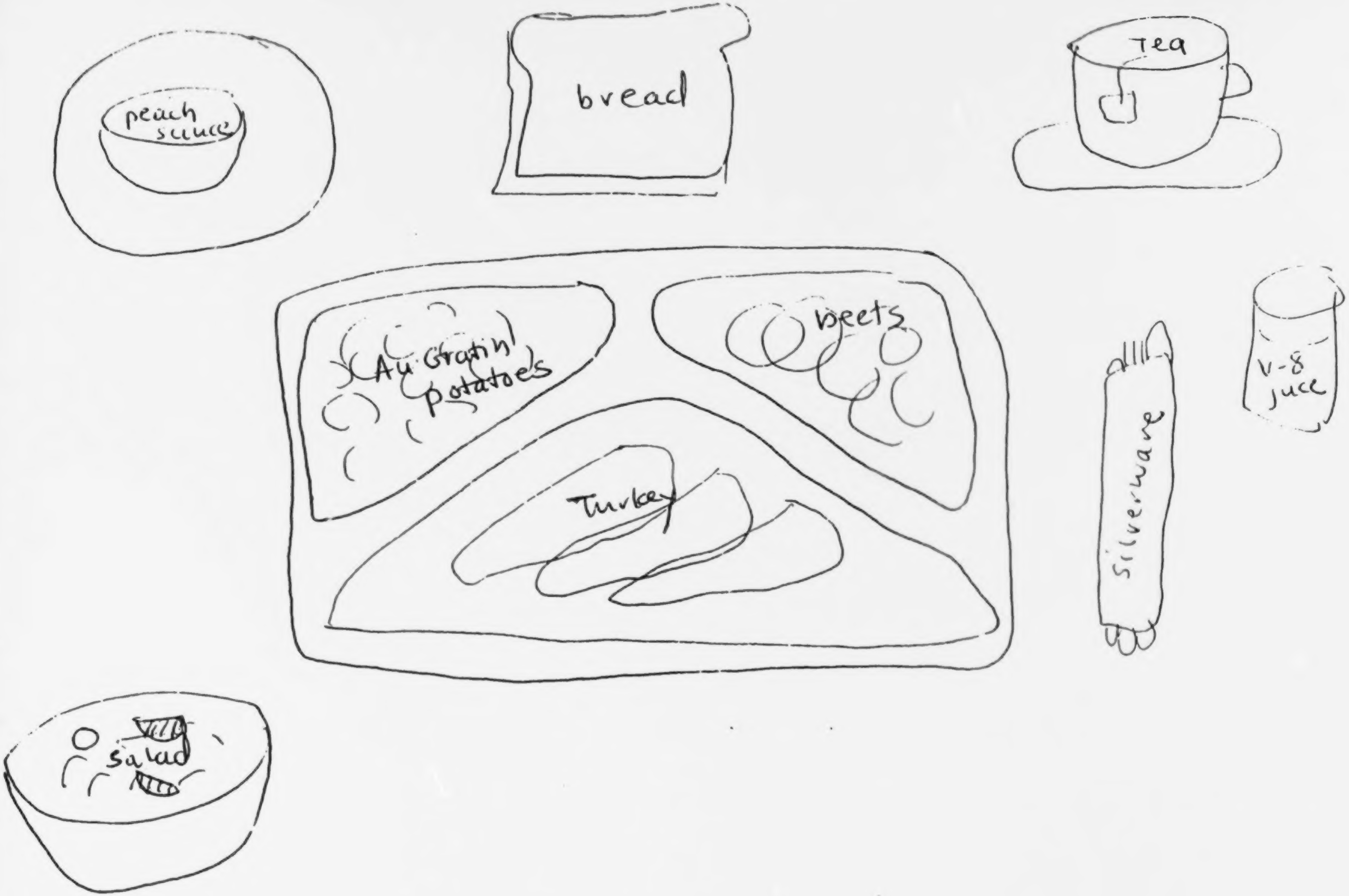
Nursing Math
Pharmacology
Introductory Medical-Surgical Nursing

Level IV - Quarters III and IV

Nursing of Children - Theory and Clinical - 4 weeks
Maternal-Newborn Nursing - Theory and Clinical - 4 weeks
Gerontology and Geriatric Nursing - Theory and Clinical - 4 weeks
Mental Illness
Advanced Medical-Surgical Nursing - Theory and Clinical - 12 weeks

Program Progression: Quarter II must follow completion of Quarter I. Quarters III and IV will follow quarters II but not always in sequence. Each quarter must be completed prior to progressing to the next quarter.

Appendix C.


peach sauce
bread
Tea
Au Gratin potatoes
beets
Turkey
Silverware
V-8 juce
salad

Appendix D.

RELATIVE CLAUSES:

Answer the questions. Each answer should be a complete sentence. Each answer should contain a relative clause.

example: One patient has insurance. One patient doesn't have insurance. Which patient worries more about money?

The patient who doesn't have insurance worries more about money.

1. One man smokes. Another man doesn't smoke. Which one has a greater risk of heart attack.

2. One woman's blood pressure is high. Another woman's blood pressure is low. Which one has a greater risk of heart attack?

3. One patient has diarrhea. One patient suffers from constipation. Which patient might take a laxative?

4. One patient is upset emotionally. One patient has a fractured shoulder. Which patient would you take axillary temperature with?

5. There is a transplant department at one hospital. There isn't a transplant department at another hospital. Which hospital would you go to if you need a new liver?

6. You gave breakfast to one patient at seven o'clock. You gave breakfast to another patient at nine o'clock. It's 12 o'clock now. Which patient should you give lunch to first?

7. There are bed linens in one closet. There are drugs in another closet. You need to change the bed. Where do you go?

8. One patient's left side is paralyzed. One patient's right side is paralyzed. Which patient should sleep on his right side?

Bob Baxter is an L.P.N. at Juliana Nursing Home. The sentences below tell you about some of the residents he works with. Write a paragraph about a day at work for Bob. Describe the things he does for these residents. You will probably want to use some adjective clauses. You don't have to write about all the residents, but write about as many as you can. Start your paragraph with the sentence, "Bob Baxter had a busy day yesterday at Juliana Nursing Home."

One resident's blood pressure is usually high.

One resident left for surgery at the hospital yesterday.

One man is blind.

One woman's left side is paralyzed.

One man was smoking in his room.

One woman couldn't breathe very well.

One man has a colostomy.

One resident refused her medication.

One man has a catheter.

One resident's daughter lives in New York. She is visiting her here.

Many of the residents wear dentures.

Examples of sentences with adjective clauses:

At 8 o'clock Bob took the blood pressure of a patient whose blood pressure is usually high. It was a little lower today.

The resident who stays in room 308 left for surgery at the hospital. Bob gave him a bed bath a 8:30 and helped put his things together.

MINNEAPOLIS TECHNICAL INSTITUTE
HEALTH OCCUPATIONS

Appendix E.

CHECKLIST: Blood Pressure

_______________ Student

OBJECTIVE: Obtain correct reading of client's blood pressure.

PROCEDURAL STEPS	SATIS-FACTORY	CRITERIA FOR MAKING JUDGMENT
1. Preparation		Washed hands per accepted procedure Assembled equipment: sphygmomanometer, stethoscope, alco-wipes, paper, pencil/pen
2. Prepare client		Introduced self to client Identified and informed of procedure
3. Maintain safe environment		Positioned client in chair/bed Assessed proper arm to use. Positioned arm, palm upward. Cleansed stethscope ear tips with alco-wipes before use
4. Read blood pressure		Located brachial artery. Wrapped cuff snugly 1-2" above elbow. Centered bladder of cuff over brachial artery. Inflated cuff rapidly to 150-160 mm for lab experience Opened control valve and regulated cuff deflation Noted first and last sounds Systolic and diastolic readings by student and instructor are to be within 4 points Waited one full minute before reinflating when rechecking BP
5. Provide for client safety and comfort		Checked client's needs Placed signal light within reach of client Lowered bed, raised siderails
6. Wash hands		According to accepted procedure
7. Report/Record		Reported deviations from normal Recorded on temp. board/chart per policy Wrote legibly

Completed satisfactorily _______________

Instructor Signature

Student Signature

Date

24

79

Appendix F.

MAKING REQUESTS

1. You want the patient to undress.
2. You want the doctor to talk to the patient.
3. You are a patient and you want the nurse to rub your back.
4. You want another nurse to watch the patient while you go somewhere.
5. You want the patient's guests to leave the room.
6. You want the doctor to write an order for a physical restraint.
7. You are a patient and you want the nurse to explain the tests you are taking.
8. You want the patient to open his mouth.
9. You want the doctor to write a prescription.
10. You want another nurse to help you lift a patient.
11. You are a patient and you want the nurse to take your temperature.
12. You want the patient to lie down.
13. You want the doctor to look at the results of some tests.
14. You want another nurse to give you some advice about a patient.
15. You want the patient to give you a specimen.
16. You want the doctor to come to the examination room.
17. You want the patient not to eat candy.
18. You want the patient to give you his address.
19. You want another nurse to answer the phone.
20. You want the doctor to talk to the patient.
21. You are a patient and you want the nurse to support you when you go to the bathroom.

Appendix G.

DESCRIPTIVE TERMS COMMONLY USED IN CHARTING

Concerning	Factor to be Charted	Suggested term to Use
Abdomen	Hard, board-like	Hard, rigid
	Soft, flabby	Flaccid, relaxed
	Blown up	Distended
	Hurts when touched	Sensitive to touch
Appearance, general	Thin and undernourished	Emaciated
	Fat	Obese
Amounts	Large amount	Profuse, copius, free excessive, measured amount
	Moderate amount	Moderate, measured amount
	Small amount	Small Amount, scanty, slight, very little, measured amount
Appetite	Very fussy about foods, refuses to eat many foods,	Has definite likes and dislikes concerning food
	Eats all food served,	Appetite good
	Eats very little	Appetite poor (state exactly what is eaten)
	Loss of appetite	Anorexia
	Refuses to eat	Refused food (state reason)
	Eats only small amount	Appetite fair
Attitude (mental)	Not interested in surroundings	Indifferent
	Has "don't care" attitude	Apathetic
	Doesn't believe anything said	Suspicious, distrustful
	Quarrelsome, disagreeable, wants to argue	Belligerent, quarrelsome, disagreeable
	Afraid, worried	Anxious, fearful
	Seems to have weight of world on his shoulders	Very serious minded
	Happy, carefree, cheerful	Cheerful, optimistic
Back (areas)	Upper back	Interscapular region, shoulder area
	Small of back	Lumbar region
	Gluteal area	Buttocks
Belch	Belching	Eructation
Bleeding	Uncontrolled bleeding	Hemorrhage
	Spurting of blood	In spurts
	Very little	OOzing
Consciousness	Fully conscious, aware of surroundings	Alert, fully conscious
	Only partly conscious	Semi-conscious
	Unconscious, but can be aroused	Stuporous
	Unconscious, cannot be aroused	Comatose

CHARTING STYLE

Write these sentence over in a style that is appropriate for charting:

1. A partial bath was give with a back rub.

2. She shows recognition of familiar people.

3. She complains of pain in her elbows and hands.

4. Her appetite was poor at breakfast and lunch.

5. She is emotional when she is talking about the past.

Med ESL
Marston
Summer 84
narrative charting

NARRATIVE CHARTING

Write the following passage over, as though it was a chart.

June 14, 1981 Ten o'clock in the morning.

He is very listless. His speech is quite slurred and he is difficult to understand. His appetite is poor. He needs assistance with Activities of Daily Living. He just wants to be in bed. He has no interest in anything.

I talked to his daughter Gloria and gave her a complete report of his condition. I also mentioned to his daughter the possibility of skilled care.

-- B. Smith L.P.N.

Marston
Med ESL
Summer 84
narrative charting

EXAMPLE OF NARRATIVE CHARTING:

6/14/81 10^{A} Very listless. Speech is quite slurred and is difficult to understand. Appetite poor. Needs assistance c̄ A.D.L's. Just wants to be in bed. Has no interest in anything.

Talked to daughter Gloria and gave her complete report of condition. It was also mentioned to daughter the possibility of skilled care. ________________________ B. Smith L.P.N.

ESL AND THE MCL: A STUDY OF "LANGUAGE"-BASED PROBLEMS FACED BY CANDIDATES FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF COMPARATIVE LAW IN AMERICAN LAW SCHOOLS

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INTRODUCTION

While each occupation, each vocation, each profession develops its own special language, perhaps none is as language-based as the legal profession. Over the centuries, Anglo-American lawyers have developed a language of their own,[1] derived in part from Latin roots, in part from medieval "law French,"[2] and in part from decades of interpretation and reinterpretation through judicial decision. This legal "language" has its own vocabulary, its own rules of syntax, grammar, and style,[3] even its own system of citation.[4] In a sense, then, even for the Anglophone, the study of law is very much an exercise in learning a "foreign" language.

At the same time, it can be argued that the practice of law, at least in the common law world, involves essentially the manipulaion of language,[5] not only the arcane language of the professional but also the everyday language of the layperson--whether client, businessperson, or (especially) juror. Thus, the successful lawyer--and law student--must have or acquire a mastery of both the language of the law and English generally.

After a decade and a half of spectacular growth, American law schools have begun to experience a relative famine. Nationally, law school applications have declined by approximately ten percent (10%) per year for each of the last three years. While enrollments have remained reasonably constant (though perhaps with a slight decline in the overall quality of the entering class, at least at the less prestigious schools), many American law schools must now anticipate a potential budgetary "crunch" when previously made commitments to staffing and expenditures, based upon previously high enrollments, encounter a decline in the absolute population of students seeking the degree of juris doctor (J.D.).[6]

Alternatively, to compensate for the loss of J.D. students, American law schools might turn to foreign students. A few American law schools have for some time had graduate degree programs catering to foreign attorneys holding non-American law degrees who seek to acquire an American credential. At those schools which already have such graduate programs, should the numbers of traditional law students continue to decrease, pressure may mount to increase the number of foreign graduate students in order to offset lost revenues. On the other hand, those law schools which presently do not have graduate programs or graduate programs directed primarily to foreigners may, for similar reasons, initiate such programs.

In either case, the American law school--not traditionally geared to provide ESL/EFL or intercultural communication training--faces a number of substantial potential difficulties. While today the stereotypical Professor Kingsfield[7] is the exception rather than the rule in American legal education, he (and she) can still be found in the law school classroom with some considerable regularity. Moreover, even the majority of American law professors--most of whom were, quite literally, Professor Kingsfield's students--have not been trained in (nor do they purport to practice) supportive pedagogical techniques.

In such an educational setting what is to be done with the graduate law student whose native language is not English? He or she must learn the language of the (American) law while still encountering problems with the vernacular. How are such students to be chosen? How are they to be trained and evaluated by American law schools? For what are they being educated? And what language/cultural training, if any, need or should the American law school provide?

THE PRESENT STUDY

With the foregoing questions in mind, the authors undertook a study of the graudate programs for foreign students offered at three American law schools. The methodology employed was in-depth interviews with the foreign graduate law students themselves, together with interviews of faculty members and administrators at each institution. The interviews focused upon (1) the students' backgrounds (cultural, linguistic, geographical, educational, and professional), (2) the students' reasons for attending a graduate law program in the United States, (3) the students' preconceptions/expectations regarding both the United States generally and the graduate law program in particular, (4) any language/cultural problems encountered by the students (as percieved by the students themselves, on the one hand, and as perceived by the law school's faculty and administrators, on the other hand), and (5) what, if any, steps the law schools took to anticipate or to remediate such problems when and if they arose.

For purposes of comparison and contrast, three law schools were chosen for study. The first of the schools selected is a highly prestigious, nationally recognized institution which draws from a pool of excellent applicants for its regular student body of nearly one thousand (1,000) students. In 1983-1984 its entering first-year class had a median LSAT[8] score of approximately 40 and a median undergraduate grade point average (GPA) of 3.70.[9] A public, taxpayer-supported institution, this law school will, for purposes of this paper, be identified as "State Law School."

The second law school selected for study is a developing, regionally recognized school. Associated with a sectarian undergraduate college, this law school admits students with above average undergraduate records.

Identified for purposes of this paper as "Private Law School," this school has a prospective-J.D. population of nine hundred and forty-nine (949), and in 1983-1984 admitted an entering class with a median undergraduate GPA of 3.25 and a median LSAT score of 34.[10]

"Independent Law School," as it shall be known in this paper, is a law school with a juris doctor enrollment of about six hundred and seventy (670) students. Founded in 1924, it was originally associated with a private undergraduate institution. But, in 1975, it became the first American law school ever to break away from an established college or university and yet keep its American Bar Association accreditation. While certainly, thus, a competent law school, Independent Law School is, nevertheless, an institution presently at the lower end of the prestige continuum, which draws its enrollment from a pool of good but not outstanding applicants. In 1983-1984, its entering class had a median undergraduate GPA of 3.0 and a median LSAT score of 33.[11]

FINDINGS

Private Law School

While, as discussed more fully below, the programs vary in some detail(s), each of the schools surveyed has a graduate law program in which foreign attorneys pursue regular juris doctor (J.D.) course work, together with some specialized class (or classes) for the foreign graduate students only. Private Law School, for example, requires its Master of Comparative Law (MCL) students to take a three-unit Introduction to the United States Legal System. Otherwise, the students are free to take whatever courses they wish in order to complete the twenty-four units required for the degree, although the faculty director of the program does try to steer the students into one or two of the first-year courses in the J.D. program, such as Real Property, Torts, or Contracts.[12]

At Private Law School each of the MCL students must also fulfill a scholarly writing requirement by producing a research paper in English. Normally, this is done by the student's taking an upper level seminar, but a thesis option is also provided for the more scholarly inclined.

Presently, Private Law School has twenty students enrolled in its MCL program, only one of which is a native English speaker.[13] Sixteen of the students are pursuing their studies full-time; the other four are part-time students. This student population is predominantly (2/3) drawn from European countries, with the remaining students generally coming from the Middle East or Southern Asia. There are only two Latin American students; there are none from Africa. This student-nationality mix tends to be consistent with the pattern of requests for information and admission applications which Private Law School has experienced during the seven years its MCL program has been in existence. If there has been any change over that time it has been a decline in the number of inquiries (and, thus, students) from Latin America.

This student mix is also reflective of differences in background and motivation for enrolling in the MCL degree program. The European students, the largest contingent, which itself tends to be drawn primarily from the French and from German speakers (Germans, Swiss, Austrians), overwhelmingly tend to be academically-oriented, doctoral students in their own country of origin, who intend to pursue teaching careers. The MCL year provides these students with a chance to enhance their academic credentials, while garnering the information necessary to add a "comparative law" chapter to their doctoral dissertations. Generally, the European students tend to be younger than their Latin, Arab, and Asian colleagues.

Unlike the European students at Private Law School, the students from the Middle East, Asia, and Latin American tend to have had experience in the actual practice of law. They are drawn largely, though not exclusively, from the civil service in their respective countries, and they are seeking the MCL for purposes of upward mobility in their careers.

For admission to its MCL program Private Law School employs an informal, "rule of thumb" requirement of a minimum score of 600 on the TOEFL. Indeed, the average (mean) TOEFL score of the 1984 admittees was 613. Candidates with a score of 575 or lower are placed on a waiting list and, if admitted at all, are admitted on the basis of such individualized criteria as faculty familiarity with the student's referee(s), the desire to have a graduate in that particular country or region, or some unique contribution the student might make to the school while enrolled in the MCL program. Most interestingly, the faculty director of the program, based on his experience, expressed considerable confidence in the TOEFL as a predictor of law school success for MCL students.

Once admitted, Private Law School's MCL students receive no additional English training. They are required to take the same examinations with their American law student counterparts; and, since law school examinations are graded anonymously, the professor--at least in theory--does not know if an examination paper is that of an MCL or of a J.D. student. The only concessions which Private Law School makes to the linguistic backgrounds of its MCL students is to allow them to use an English language dictionary during an examination and--subject to the approval of the individual professor in the particular course--to allow them an additional twenty minutes per hour of time in which to complete the examination. (For example, an MCL student would be permitted four hours to complete an examination budgeted for three hours for regular J.D. students.)

Despite what may appear to some to be a rather Draconian approach to non-English speaking students--or, more likely, because of the relatively high TOEFL scores of its MCL students--, Private Law School claims to have experienced few language problems with its MCL students. According to the faculty director of Private Law School's MCL program, the problems which its students have encountered tend to be attributable to the speech patterns of certain professors. Some speak too quickly; MCL students tend to avoid these.[14] Similarly, the MCL students complain about and avoid those professors whose speech is regionally accented.[15] The director further noted that, to the extent MCL students have experienced language problems, those problems were centered in the students from non-Indo-European speaking backgrounds. Arabic speakers have encountered some difficulties, but Private Law School's experience has been that the language problems have been most acute among its Thai and Taiwanese students.

The students themselves supported the director's observations regarding professors' speech patterns. But they also reported significantly greater language problems than recognized (or acknowledged) by the faculty director. Given the Socratic method employed in most law school instruction, difficulties in speaking English are magnified. As one of the students, a Spanish-speaking woman with eleven years experience as a practicing attorney, put it, "The first time I speak up in class, the professor, he, ridiculized me." The result: she no longer volunteers to participate in class discussions.[16] The students, furthermore, believed that their speaking fluency (or the lack thereof) inhibited their ability to become better acquainted with Americans personally.

When its MCL students experience such problems, however, Private Law School's remediating response has been relatively minimal. Students experiencing difficulties are encouraged to move from full-time to part-time study and/or are referred to the undergraduate English program. The Law School itself provides no ESL training for the students, either prior to their commencing the MCL program or concurrent with their MCL course work. In fact, one MCL student, a Pakistani, himself a part-time employee in the university's language laboratory, complained that he had received no response to his repeated requests that the law school have English language video cassettes (similar to those made available to the undergraduate foreign language students) placed in the lab for use by the MCL students. Nevertheless, Private Law School reports it has never yet had an MCL student flunk out of the program (although there has been some "optional" leaving) and in the first six years of its existence (1979-1984) has produced thirty-nine graduates.

This success rate may be attributable to the extensive program of personal support Private Law School provides for its MCL students. Each student is assigned an individual faculty adviser, an individual student adviser (drawn on a voluntary basis from the ranks of the regular American law students), and an individual alumnus/alumna adviser. These advisers assist the MCL student in adapting to American culture, provide experienced advice regarding the academic transition, and generally personalize the MCL program.

The foreign students, in turn, can and do provide a resource for the law school. In class, if not inhibited from participation, they provide a comparative perspective on the issues under discussion. On an extracurricular basis, the students present a monthly lecture series, organized by themselves, on legal topics of international or transnational interest.

Still, faculty and (American) student reaction to the MCL students has been mixed. The response of those students enrolled in the regular J.D. program has ranged from indifference to virtual adoption. Most of the American students, particularly first-year students, are so overwhelmed themselves by the law school experience that they have little time or energy to devote to cultivating acquaintances with MCL students. A few second- and third-year students, particularly those who anticipate international careers, approach the MCL students, and it is from this pool that the volunteer student advisers are drawn. Many of these students perform their advising roles with enthusiasm and genuine regard for the foreign students, but their motivation remains primarily career-oriented. There appeared to be little altruism in the student advising program.

Faculty reaction has also been mixed and, in a few cases, much more hostile than student response. Some faculty believe that, by virtue of being able to use a dictionary and being given additional time on examinations, the MCL students receive an unfair advantage; a handful have even refused to allow MCL students in their classes. Even those favorably disposed to the MCL program at Private Law School concede that it is highly "labor intensive." As the faculty director of the program put it, the MCL students "take a lot of time." Each requires much more advising than does the average J.D. student, and they often need non-academic assistance, such as help with visa problems or housing discrimination (though the latter does not seem to be a problem significantly suffered by the European students, the largest group in the program).

State Law School

State Law School's experience has tended to parallel that of Private

Law School. Like Private Law School's MCL program, State Law School's Graduate Program in International and Comparative Studies has been in-place for seven years. If anything, State Law School's program is even more academically oriented than that of Private Law School.[17] Associated with a major research university whose undergraduate and graduate programs are nationally and internationally recognized, State Law School admits only six to ten students each year from an applicant pool numbering one hundred and twenty to one hundred and fifty per year. (Recently State Law School has received on average seven hundred to eight hundred inquiries and/or requests for applications each year).

Those students admitted are expected to complete a one-year, full-time in-residence program of twenty units. The twenty units include an Introduction to American Law, given during the Fall Semester, and a four-unit seminar, given during the Spring Semester for graduate students only, as a part of which the students write a substantial research thesis in English. Students are also expected to take at least one first-year J.D. course, usually Contracts or Torts.

In those courses which they take with regular American J.D. students, the foreign students are examined just as the other students; and, because the exams are graded anonymously, the professors allegedly do not know whether a particular examination has been produced by a non-native-English-speaking student. As at Private Law School, however, the foreign graduate students are permitted extra time (at professorial discretion up to one additional hour per three hours of examination time), in which to complete an exam. They are not, however, permitted to use a dictionary.

Given the highly academic nature of its program, State Law School's foreign graduate student population tends to be not only predominantly European but also largely Germanic. If there is any trend in its enrollment, it is toward a growing presence of Swiss and Dutch. Each year a minority of Asians are enrolled, although somewhat surprisingly in view of State Law School's location on the Pacific Rim few, if any, of these have been or are Japanese. No Middle Eastern student has ever matriculated in the program; indeed, in seven years the program has enrolled but a single Muslim student, a Pakistani.

State Law School's foreign graduate students, thus, strongly tend to be European doctoral students or junior faculty at European universities, with little or no experience in the actual practice of law. Few, if any, of it students pursue its program as a means to advance their careers within the legal profession in their home countries. The students tend to concentrate heavily on international business and commerical law; and, in fact, some of the American faculty involved with the program have begun to voice concern over its narrowness of focus.

For admission, State Law School tends to insist upon TOEFL scores in excess of 600. Applicants with 560 TOEFLs or below are automatically rejected. Applicants with TOEFL scores between 600 and 560 present, as the faculty director of the program phrased it, "tricky stuff." Generally, it has been State Law School's experience that otherwise well-qualified and well-recommended European applicants whose TOEFL scores fall in this range can succeed in the program; acceptance of Asian applicants with TOEFL scores between 560 and 600, however, has been, again to quote the faculty director, "an invitation to disaster." Of course, given the particular orientation of State Law School's program, this may simply be a self-fulfilling prophecy. In any case, the faculty director of State Law School's program was less confident in the correlation between TOEFL score and law school success than was the faculty director of Private Law School's program.

Admitted students are paired with individual faculty members who guide the student's study very much on a tutorial model. Unlike Private Law School, however, there is no "buddy" system, whereby the foreign student is assigned an American student counterpart. Apart from this individual faculty attention and the possibility of extra time to complete exminations, the foreign graduate students receive no allowance whatsoever.

The students themselves express appreciation at what they perceive to be the very personalized instruction of American law schools. They do, however, exhibit dismay at the highly compartmentalized and specialized nature of American legal practice and American legal instruction. Insofar as their language abilities were concerned and how those might interfere with their academic performance, those foreign students interviewed at State Law School were less sanguine than the faculty director of the program. As a group they indicated frustration with their ability to take what they conceived of as adequate class notes.[18]

The students also expressed disappointment at their inability to "get to know" Americans. All of the State Law School students interviewed found Americans--the general population as well as their law school colleagues--to be very helpful and friendly on a superficial level. But they agreed uniformally that establishing closer personal relationships with Americans was virtually impossible.[19]

Generally, however, it would be accurate to say that State Law School has experienced few "language"-based problems in its graduate program.

Most of its students encountering American society for the first time,[20] even those from Western Europe, do, of course, experience an initial period of "culture shock," upon arriving in the United States. But, given the very small numbers of students involved, the highly selective process by which they are admitted, the innate intelligence and academic skills of the admittees, and their high levels of English proficiency, such problems as have been encountered have been of an individual or idiosyncratic nature, rather than attributable to any linguistic, ethic or cultural patterns.

Indeed, the only generally recurring problem noted by State Law School's faculty program director was that of students taking and passing the local state bar examination, finding employment with American law firms, and remaining or attempting to remain in the United States. This is a problem, however, which seems clearly attributable to State Law School's own very high selection standards, the intellectual caliber of the foreign students admitted to its graduate program, and, thus, to those students' potential for economic success in the United States It is, however, a concern of the school, which has begun to scrutinize closely applications to attempt to identify those applicants who may be using the program as a means to get one foot inside "the golden door."[21]

Independent Law School

Independent Law School's MCL program is the smallest, the most-recently established, and interestingly enough the most cosmopolitan of the three programs. In only its second year, the program has a current enrollment of six students, two of whom are Saudis and one a Thai. Its first admittees were two Kuwaitis and another Thai.

MCL students must complete sixteen units within a residency of one year, and the school insists that they take at least one first-year J.D. course, again usually Torts or Contracts. Each student must also complete the school's scholarly writing requirement, applicable to all J.D. students as well; but this can be satisfied by a two-unit "paper" course. There is no thesis requirement.

In addition, as part of the MCL program, the students attend a two-month summer orientation prior to the beginning of the regular academic year. Taught in English by the program's faculty director, this summer orientation introduces the students to the American judicial system, American civil and criminal procedure, and American substantive law. At a less obvious level, the summer program is also intended to improve and equalize the students' knowledge of both American legal method and American English.

Unlike either Private Law School or State Law School, the MCL students at Independent Law School, even the Europeans, are all practice-oriented. Each of them has had at least two or three years experience in practice in their respective countries, and each reported that they intended to return to practice in their countries of origin. Given this practical orientation, the students' interests and, thus, the courses which they take tend to concentrate on commercial law, particularly international taxation and international business transactions.

Of the three programs surveyed, Independent Law School's MCL program is the only one directed by a law faculty member who is himself a non-native English speaker. Ironically enough, in light of this fact, it is the program which makes the fewest concessions to potential language difficulties of its students (except, of course, for the pre-entry orientation). Examined together with regular J.D. students, Independent Law School's MCL students are not allowed to use a dictionary in their examinations, nor are they permitted extra time in which to complete an examination.[22] The students are not assigned to individual faculty tutors, nor are they paired with American J.D. students. Indeed, the foreign-born and foreign-educated director of Independent Law School's MCL program took the position that, in accepting admission to the program and matriculating at Independent Law School, the foreign students were to be treated "like any other grown-ups" and "assummed the risk" that their knowledge of English might be inadequate.

Independent Law School's rigorous, uncompromising approach cannot be said to be warranted by the TOEFL scores of its students. Among the three programs surveyed, its students' scores were the lowest, ranging from 500 to 550.

The program director claimed that, apart from some problems in locating housing and the usual difficulties with the American immigration bureaucracy, the students had experienced few, if any, linguistic/cultural problems. The students, however, were less positive, particularly with regard to their speaking and listening abilities; and, in fact, it was the authors' own observation(s) that Independent Law School's MCL students were less prepared for oral communication in English than were the students in the other two programs surveyed.

Indeed, a majority of the MCL students at Independent Law School reported that they had applied to graduate law programs at more prestigious East Coast law schools and (at the time they were interviewed) were hoping to be accepted at those universities in order to pursue an LL.M. or a second MCL degree. This phenomenon was discovered only at Independent

Law School. Should this pattern continue, it is apparent that Independent Law School's MCL course of study would become, in effect, an orientation program for other law schools.

CONCLUSIONS

The relative infancy of the programs surveyed and the small numbers of students involved will permit of only very tentative conclusions at best. Still the authors' research suggests three: (1) The rich tend to get richer; (2) but the rich may not be as rich as they perceive themselves to be; and (3), to the extent that the dynamic in American legal education is toward an expansion of graduate programs for foreign students (and that does appear to be the dynamic), American law schools should show greater sensitivity to those students' language-based problems and needs.

In the first place, it is obvious that, if a school, such as State Law School, can draw from a relatively large pool of very qualified applicants, admitting but five percent of those applicants, most of whom are of European origin, it can insist on near-native fluency in English (at least as measured by the TOEFL). It is not surprising, therefore, that State Law School's foreign graduate students expressed the fewest difficulties in adapting to American society generally and American legal education in particular. Indeed, their greatest frustration--the difficulty in getting to know Americans on an intimate personal level--is a measure of their language proficiency. But even State Law School's foreign graduate students noted writing (note-taking) difficulties which the faculty program director did not recognize.

This, in turn, relates to the second conclusion the authors would draw on the basis of this preliminary research. At each of the law schools surveyed, it was striking to encounter the differences in perception of the program expressed by faculty and administrators, on the one hand, and the foreign students, on the other. In every case, program directors, law school administrators, and law faculty interviewed exuded confidence in their program and reported no identifiable pattern of problems within their program. At each institution, however, the foreign students, while enthusiastic about their particular school's program, recognized having experienced language-based problems.

The students' own self-perceptions of their problems in English formed no general pattern. Among the four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) one or more students interviewed claimed to have experienced special problems with each. All of the foreign law students strongly believed that it took them significantly longer to complete reading assignments than it did their American counterparts in the classes they took with J.D. students. This problem, however, appears to the authors to be less attributable to the students' general command of English than to the specialized nature of the subject matter.

The most commonly reported problems which could be clearly attributed to the students' levels of language preparation were related to speaking skills. This seems to belie the confidence expressed by some program directors and law faculty in the TOEFL as a predictor of law school ability, since that examination does not test speaking proficiency. When such shortcomings in spoken English are combined with the often brusque and sometimes consciously intimidating ambience of the American law school classroom, the foreign student's response is often to withdraw from participation. As a result, the foreign students, however well they may perform on examinations, are denied a benefit upon which American law schools pride themselves: participation in the intellectual give-and-take between professor and student and between student and student, the preparation of the lawyer "to think on his feet."

Perhaps the most striking aspect of the three programs surveyed, considered as a whole, is how recently they have been implemented. None is more than seven years old. Indeed, the youngest program has been implemented at the least prestigious of the three law schools studied and that hardest hit by the decline in American students' applications for J.D. programs. It is also of note that it is this program, at Independent Law School, that, while the smallest of the three, accepts the highest percentage of applicants (20%), requires the lowest TEOFL scores, and has the students who both exhibit and report the highest incidence of langauge problems.

Each faculty program director interviewed, however, stated that there was an interest on the part of the law school dean or other higher-level administrator in increasing the size of the graduate program for foreign lawyers. Each of them also agreed that this seemed to be a function of declining or potentially declining J.D. enrollments, and each further agreed that it was a dynamic that was likely to continue.

Should Master of Comparative Law and related programs expand at American law schools which presently have such programs, or should they proliferate, or both, it may reasonably be anticipated that many schools, though perhaps not such lofty groves of academe as State Law School, will replicate Independent Law School's experience. That is, of necessity they will admit a larger percentage of applicants than either State Law School or Private Law School do presently, thereby ethnically diversifying their foreign student body but also admitting an increasing number of students neither culturally nor linguistically predisposed to an understanding, appreciation, or acceptance of common law systems or their logic and language. These students will (as they presently do) experience "language"- based problems, ranging in severity from difficulty in reading to cultural alienation. To the extent that the law schools fail to recognize and appreciate the existence of these problems (as presently seems to be the case), there is created the potential for situations to arise, either in the classroom or outside of it, that may be embarrassing to the law school and its MCL program.

Recommendations

Since American law schools are neither able nor apparently inclined to provide English language training, the authors respectfully suggest that law schools with MCL or similar graduate programs engage ESL professionals to assist them.[23] Ideally, this would take the form of a summer orientation program of several weeks duration offered prior to the students' commencing the actual MCL program itself. Independent Law School does presently have a two-month summer orientation, but its emphasis is upon American law and legal process. What is recommended here is a program that would minimize legal substance and emphasize instruction in English for the specific purpose of legal study, together with some intercultural communication training. The experiences of Private Law School and State Law School indicate that an introductory course on American substantive law and the American legal system can feasibly be taught during the first semester of the regular academic year, while the foreign graduate students are concurrently enrolled in other law school classes.

The principal problem with implementing such a program would, however, be cost. Although they have not investigated it fully, the authors are informed that one American law school (Georgetown) does offer a summer program similar in some ways to that advocated here. Several of the students interviewed for this paper, however, stated that, while they had been aware of the Georgetown program, they had not attended it for financial reasons. This concern appears to be greatest among European students, who tend to be self-financed. It would appear to be less significant among students from Asian and Arab countries who tend to be sponsored by governmental agencies or multinational corporations. Those students, moreover, appear to be those most in need of such language training.

Alternatively, if cost is a major stumbling block, the law school should retain an ESL professional as a consultant to meet with the foreign students on a regular basis. The fee for such a consultant could be added to the MCL tuition but, by being spread among several students, should only marginally increase that tuition. This consultant would, then, be in a position to recognize, diagnose, and correct a student's language problems before they become acute. To do less, simply admitting the students and trusting in the TOEFL, seems not only unfair to the foreign students but also possibly unfair to the American law students who must share their classes.[24]

FOOTNOTES

[1] *See* H.C. Black, *Black's Law Dictionary: Definitions of the Terms and Phrases of American and English Jurisprudence, Ancient and Modern* (5th ed.; St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Co., 1979).

[2] *See* Alan Harding, *A Social History of English Law* (Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books, 1966), pp. 124, 171, 195-196, 201 & 205.

[3] *See, e.g.*, Henry Weihofen, *Legal Writing Style* (St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Co., 1961); Norman Brand & John O. White, *Legal Writing: The Strategy of Persuasion* (New York, NY: St. Martin's Press, 1976).

[4] *See* The Harvard Law Review Association, *A Uniform System of Citation* (13th ed.; Cambridge, MA: 1981). In fact, for the convenience of one of the authors, a modified form of legal citation is being used for these footnotes.

[5] *See generally* William R. Bishin & Christopher D. Stone, *Law, Language, and Ethics: An Introduction to Law and Legal Method* (Mineola, NY: Foundation Press: 1972).

[6] Originally, the degree awarded by American law schools, a prerequisite to entry into the legal profession, was a Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.). In the Sixties, in response to student protests that three years spent in a post-graduate, professional school warranted more than another bachelor's degree, some law schools changed the title of the degree they gave to *juris doctor* or J.D. Perforce, virtually all other American law schools soon followed suit, thus making the law perhaps the only field of learning in which a doctoral degree is awarded *before* the master's.

[7] *See* John Jay Osborne, *The Paper Chase*, (Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin, 1971); *see also* Arthur T. Vanderbilt, II, *Law School: Briefing for a Legal Education* (Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1979).

[8] The Law School Admission Test (LSAT) is a standardized, machine-scored examination, similar in some respects to the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). With some exceptions, it is required of all applicants for admission to law schools accredited by the American Bar Association. The LSAT, which until 1982 was scored on a scale of 200 to 800, is now scored on a 10 to 48 scale, with the median (50th percentile) score being approximately 31 for the 1982-1984 period.

[9] Law School Admission Council/Law School Admission Services, *1984-85 Prelaw Handbook* (Newtown, PA: Law School Admission Services, 1984), p. 83.

[10] *Id*. at p. 299.

[11] Law School Admission Council/Law School Admission Services, *Law Schools in Profile* (Newtown, PA: Law School Admission Services, 1983), p. 34.

[12] The first-year program in most American law schools usually consists of classes in the law of Torts, Contracts, Real Property, Civil Procedure, and Criminal Law, together with a class (variously labelled at different schools) in Legal Skills (i.e. legal research and writing). It is these first-year classes that tend to be the most Socratic, the most (apparently) abstruse, and the most intimidating. Or, as the aphorism known to anyone who has ever attended an American law school would have it: "In the first year, they scare you to death; in the second year, they work you to death; and, in the third year, they bore you to death."

[13] This is a student from the United Kingdom.

[14] This may present an interesting problem worthy of further study. It is the perception of the legally trained co-author of this paper that lawyers, as a group, tend to speak relatively rapidly. This is also true of professors of law; if anything, they tend, as a group, to speak even more rapidly. The phlegmatism of Professor Kingsfield is relatively rarely encountered. If this perception is accurate, the MCL student is presented with yet an additional barrier.

[15] In the individual case of Private Law School this is, indeed, unfortunate, in that one of its "star" professors is a Texan, born and bred, with a corresponding speech pattern. This instructor is an authority on American criminal law and criminal procedure, subjects with obvious potential for cross-national significance. Because of this professor's drawl, however, MCL students shun his classes.

[16] While this student attributed the professor's reaction to her lack of command of the English language, it should be noted that, like Hart, the protagonist in The Paper Chase, many American students feel themselves "ridiculized" in first-year law classes. The professor's reaction, thus, may simply have been standard first-year pedagogy. The discomfiture of the experience, however, is no doubt heightened when one is less than fluent in the language of instruction.

[17] In fact, State Law School does not award the Master of Comparative Law degree. Its foreign graduate students receive the Master of Law (LL.M.) degree, the standard American graduate law degree. Originally it gave the MCL degree but abandoned it in favor of the LL.M. at the urging of the foreign students themselves who, according to the program's faculty director, viewed the MCL as a "booby prize."

[18] This complaint may represent more of a cultural than a true language problem in that the foreign students, particularly the Europeans, are used to professors who lecture, whereas the Socratic method practiced in much American law school instruction does not lend itself to note-taking In the experience of one of the authors, many American students, coming from undergraduate, lecture-style classes, are also concerned about their inability to take class notes in law school. It may be of note, however, that the foreign students were not better forewarned about what to expect in a Socratic classroom.

[19] In this regard, it is interesting to contrast the perceptions of the foreign students at State Law School with those of the MCL students at Private Law School. Both groups noted an inability to become acquainted with Americans on a close personal level. The students at Private Law School, however, ascribed this problem to their own lack of fluency, whereas the more English-proficient State Law School students attributed it to cultural factors.

[20] A significant number of State Law School's foreign graduate students have, however, previously travelled in the United States. Of the three programs surveyed, State Law School's was the only one with students who had had experience in America prior to enrolling in law school.

[21] State Law School's "problem" in this regard should be contrasted with the experience of Private Law School. According to the faculty director of the program, Private Law School has found it rare for its MCL students to stay in the United States, with an exception to be made for southern Asians, particularly Indians and Pakistanis. Some of the students at Private Law School, however, told the authors that they hoped to find employment with American firms for one or two years before returning to their own countries.

[22] Because law school grades are determined primarily, if not exclusively, on the basis of end-of-year examinations, it is not possible to say whether, as of the date of the writing of this paper, these students are or are not passing.

[23] Interestingly enough, when it was suggested to the foreign students who were interviewed for this paper that their respective programs might do more to assist them with their "language"-based problems, many of them rejected the idea. The competetive, individualist spirit of the American law school, thus, does not appear to be limited to its native students. The European students, however, were the most resistant to the idea that their law school could or should help them with additional language training. Non-Western students were more receptive to the idea.

[24] The authors wish to thank the following for their assistance in the research reported in this paper: Professor Robert Berring, University of California (Berkely) School of Law; Professor Ralph Folsom, University of San Diego School of Law; Ms. Yvette Fontaine, University of San Diego School of Law; Professor Chin Kim, California Western School of Law; Ms. Delia Nichols, University of California (Berkely) School of Law; Ms. Julia O'Keefe, Columbia University School of Law; Professor Arthur Rosett, UCLA School of Law: Professor Justin Sweet, University of California (Berkely) School of Law; Dean Leroy Tornquist, Willamette University College of Law; and the foreign graduate students at the UCLA, University of San Diego, and California Western Schools of Law.

GROUNDWORK: AN INTERMEDIATE-LEVEL TEXT OF ESL FOR PETROLEUM ENGINEERS, GEOLOGISTS, AND GEOPHYSICISTS

By

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EMU Conference on Foreign Languages for Business and the Professions

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GROUNDWORK:
AN INTERMEDIATE-LEVEL TEXT OF ESL
FOR PETROLEUM ENGINEERS, GEOLOGISTS, AND GEOPHYSICISTS

by Gail Kellersberger and Susan Rippert-Davila

Once upon a time, in an ESL program far, far from solvent, a band of dedicated, unsuspecting professionals embarked upon a quest for the perfect model for an ESP text. Hardy were they and quick of wit, tempered by the fires of the crosscultural classroom. With unexpected swiftness, their journey led them from the shifting yet predictable sands of the classroom across the sharp shale of corporate deadline to the anticlines of field geology. The world was all before them.

You may wonder if we exaggerate. Let me ask you; as you yourselves consider customizing language courses for specific groups, are you prepared for the complexity of evaluating and selecting your theoretical framework? Have you asked yourselves: what kinds of underlying assumptions must one adopt to ensure communication with the corporate sector? How do the needs of the corporate sector vary from academic needs? How can your conception of language learning ground a corporate training package? Beyond the simple considerations of time and cost, how can you provide materials that offer efficient, effective language acquisition? On a more practical level, where will you find your materials? Do you have the expertise to create authentic materials? Can you read and understand authentic materials in the field? Are you versed in copyright law and rules for using materials from another author? How will you negotiate the contract? In terms of time, space and staffing, can you deliver?

Perhaps our recent experience in the development of ESP training materials will help you formulate a framework for your own approach to the problem.

In our case, making the initial contact was simple because the corporate representative came to us. In August 1983, a representative of Esso Exploration, Inc. conducted telephone surveys of Houston universities and language institutes. His goal: to fulfill the requirements of a joint venture contract with the PRC by finding providers of English language training for Chinese geologists and petroleum engineers. After interviews and on-site visits were completed in September, the English Language Institute of the University of Houston-Downtown was chosen because we offered 1) experienced instructors (minimum five years ESL teaching), 2) knowledge of China and the needs of the adult Chinese language learner (a member of our faculty had taught for a year in China), 3) a highly competitive price, and 4) a director who communicated clearly and comfortable within the corporate sector.

In addition to agreeing to provide ESL courses for language learners of unknown proficiency who would arrive in the U.S. at an indeterminate future date, the ELI (shrewd negotiators that we were) also agreed to customize ESP training materials for use by geologists and engineers in China -- trainees who were in the upper level of a program that taught language and culture as separate entities and that employed both Americans and Chinese as instructors. And such was the birth of Groundwork.

Because this was our first experience in customizing technical materials on such a large scale, we set our fees modestly. In exchange, we received verbal (and later written) assurance that the base materials would be nonproprietary and non-copyrighted to allow us the possibility of publishing our finished work.

It was October. The Christmas holidays were in sight. When asked, "how long will it take to develop these special materials, this 'micro-minitext' ?" we confidently replied, "three months" -- certain that the intervening holidays would allow ample time for us to finish this task before reporting for duty as the local committee in charge of the TESOL Annual Convention in March.

In mid-February 1984 we received the packet of base articles. We began to make final curriculum decisions and to write.

Because a text like Groundwork must address the language needs of professionals who easily command the concepts and methods of their field, yet lack adequate English language skills, traditional materials for language teaching lack the technical slant this text required. The basic problem faced in preparing the text revolved around the issue of authentic versus manipulated (for example, simplified) materials. The use of manipulated materials offered the luxury of controlling the munber of linguistic elements introduced into any lesson, whether lexical, structural, rhetorical or stylistic. It permitted, furthermore, a tight focus upon designated aspects of language within a chapter and a later repetition of the same elements for reinforcement. The use of authentic materials, on the other hand, offered the appeal of being the precise material students would soon be required to use in their daily work. An equally important benefit was the control of technical and scientific concepts and idiom; as linguists, we were hardly prepared to anticipate, produce and manipulate (all without error) the idiom of another profession.

Perhaps the deciding factor in the decision lay in a shared prejudice we all held about language learning -- that language cannot be taught as separate pieces (skills, vocabulary, rhythm) to be somehow integrated later in the student's English awareness. Rather, language is learned in a comprehensive manner form the beginning. Students need to work with and analyse language within the complex web of meaning, structure and organization that is typical of any pruposeful, authentic communication. Working from this precept, then, we chose the admittedly complex, dense language of authentic geologic documents.

And that choice immediately presented a new problem. The teachers who would use the text were, like us, trained linguists, not scientists. Therefore the scientific concepts, the technical difficulties, and the new idiom would create obstacles to their own understanding and manipulation of the material for teaching purposes. We had to find a way to educate the teachers of the text about the subject itself, and that clearly required more time than any average language teacher had to devote to a text. To compound matters, teachers using the text in an oriental country such as China would find themselves in the difficult position of losing face due to their uninformed position concerning the material they were teaching. A sticky wicket, indeed!

Our solution, a working one to date, extablishes the material as a two-way exchange rather than as a traditional flow of information from teacher to student. Students are charged with the responsibility of explaining in oral and sometimes written production the more difficult technical concepts of the text to their teachers, using their newly acquired language skills. This added dimension of the text offers a new dynamic in language teaching. The non-geologist language teacher and the geologist student work together in an authentic, professional context where each clearly knows the training of the other and uses the gaps to facilitate language learning.

Because of all these theoretical and practical considerations, we decided to base the lessons on completely unabridged geological and geophysical literature. We took the material selected by Esso's geologists as typical of their field's publications, and incorporated it verbatim into the text. We dropped a few paragraphs from one article, but nothing was selected, altered or edited in any way to accomodate an artificial, preconceived format.

Once we had settled on the material and divided it into portions that could be handled within the context of chapters, we began an extensive analysis of the language. Our foremost goal was the development of reading and oral production skills, but naturally almost every area of language learning was brought into play for such a goal. We divided exercises and analyses of the language into four basic areas that we repeated with each lesson. Before students began a new reading, a pre-reading section focused their attention on material divisions, charts and graphs and upon their own expectations of the content. After the material had been read, students were asked to work through a series of contextual vocabulary exercises as well as reading exercises that focused on various skills. A section focusing on the basic ways in which language structure affects meaning followed. Writing exercises were sometimes included. The final section of each lesson worked toward oral expression, particularly in a professional context.

We turned our calendar pages from February to March.

Having achieved the division of the material and the thrust of the exercise units, we divided the exercise and analysis areas among us. The first two sections were developed by C. Susan Turney. The structural section was developed by Gail Kellersberger. The oral production work was developed by Susan Rippert-Davila. We each took a full copy of the geologic material, analysed it for our own skills purposes and produced the explanation and exercises to accompany each lesson.

C. Susan Turney approached the reading exercises with the basic plan that everything worked on had to be part of the contextual material. The vocabulary exercises relied on context clues such as word chain repetition, restatement, reference and classification. Students never faced long lists of vocabulary words to look up or memorize, as this type of activity did not fit with our preconceptions of language teaching. The various types of comprehension questions demanded synthesis, analysis of opinion, analysis of inference and equally difficult skills that required students to search for imbedded meaning rather than skim a simple phrasal answer from the surface of the material.

Gail Kellersberger approached the structural exercises through rhetorical analysis. Organizational methods that affected meaning were presented along with the typical key words and transitional phrases associated with them. Passage meaning was analyzed by means of these guides. Prediction skills from rhetorical analysis were emphasized. Specific grammatical structures were presented as methods of communicating specific types of information, and difficult wtructures were analyzed for meaning. Rudimentary organizational skills for writing were presented although writing as a whole was not a focus of the text.

Susan Rippert- Davila approached the oral production exercises with awareness of the specific production problems typical of Chinese speakers of English and, more importantly, of the characteristic attitude of the Chinese student toward oral production. The exercises centered around tasks that the student might well be required to perform in professional activity, offering patterns common to the communication of specific types of information. Often exercises focused on certain pronunciation difficulties common to the Chinese student.

For the most part we worked independently of each other, checking every day or two to encourage each other to maintain the pace required to meet our self-imposed intermediate deadlines and to maintain compatible decipherings of difficult technical passages.

When all the language analysis and the exercises were completed, we got together and began the process of fitting the material into a workable progression. We found the basic drafts to work fairly well. Certainly, we added materials that reinforced skills taught in another writer's section within a chapter. We found some duplication but not enough to warrant a restructuring of anyone's draft; in fact, it acted as reinforcement. Very little time was required to create the flow we wanted in the material. However, a prodigious amount of time at the computer word processor keyboard was required to get the material set up in a visually satisfying format.

We wrote the preface together, finding once again to our delight how much our philosophies agreed. We shuddered to think how it might have worked had we held radically differing approaches to language teaching. When the material had been prepared for the printing, a task which included the copyright page, pagination, and the textcover design, we chose a color and binding method and took the manuscript to a printer.

Our first goal with the text was to field test the material with Chinese students, which we had immediate opportunity to do, as a group of Chinese trainees arrived in the U.S. in the middle of March. When we had worked through at least a chapter and found the text to be successful, we had a colleague who knew nothing of our work or of geology teach from the text. Again, the text worked quite well, and we knew our model of a two-way teaching environment was not only workable but highly productive. But would it work overseas? The copies of Groundwork used on-site in Guangzhou received a favorable review by the American director of the program.

Later reports (in the fall of 1984) from China indicated the need for an answer key and tapes. After an exchange of telex messages, we realized they wanted a teacher's manual, a project we have not yet undertaken.

Our next goal and our most challenging problem concerned publication. First, we decided whether we wanted to continue production and distribution of the text ourselves or whether we wanted to submit the manuscript to a publisher. We considered the costs and effort involved in market research, sales trips and text production versus the likelihood of royalty income from a publisher. We believe that the text would be more lucrative and would reach more people if we could market it ourselves. However, time constraints impeded that process and we realized we might never get the book out. Therefore, we submitted it to Prentice-Hall, Inc. The editor kept the manuscript for approximately three months , during which time it was sent out for market reviews. (The editor had discussed the text with us prior to our submitting it and had indicated that the selectivity of the material might present a marketing problem too great to warrant its publication.) We recently received a very encouraging letter inwhich the editor both turned down the manuscript and suggested specific publishers that might well accept it.

Concurrent with the submission of the manuscript to Prentice-Hall was our pursuance of clear copyright. We had not obtained formal written permission to use the authentic materials, although we had informal verbal and written acknowledgement and sanction of our intent to publish and market the work. To that end, we had already filed for and received copyright to the material. In the interim, however, one of the technical articles we used has been published in a journal and another article is now considered proprietary.

Despite this turn of events, relations between us remain cordial and productive. Our English Language Institute is now providing language instruction for another group of Esso Chinese engineers and geologists, and we are assured of the good faith of the actions of the company's representatives. Their initial doubts about the feasability of working through the copyright problems have turned to interest in pursuing clear permission for our use -- but the copies in China may be recalled to the U.S.

A few parting works of advice for other language instructors considering following the path of special-purpose materials development (in addition to the theoretical and practical concerns mentioned earlier):

(1) The task will take longer than you think it will.

(2) You will need:
  - enormous quantities of coffee
  - a tolerant spouse or good friend to brew coffee, help to cook for co-authors, retrieve material erroneously deleted from a computer disk, and tolerate raucous debate at 2:00 a.m.
  - an office desk large enough not to lose notes reminding you to teach your 10:00 class

(3) Co-authors need to hold complimentary assumptions about language learning and teaching.

(4) Be certain to spell out details of copyright and distribution rights in a formal written document beforehand.

ENGLISH FOR PETROCHEMICAL PLANT OPERATORS

By

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June 6, 1985

English for Petrochemical Plant Operators

The negotiations had taken a little over two months, but at last the contract was signed and countersigned. The contract specified that we were to prepare forty Saudi Arabian nationals for the additional training they would receive in Petrochemical Plant Operation. Our task, then, would be to develop in the trainees a degree of fluency in English, a fluency which would allow them to learn the scientific and technological terminology and practices of the industry as well as the day to day language of interaction among supervisor and workers.

Every curriculum designer must, at the outset, take into account three variables: 1) input, the degree of skill and or prior learning of the students; 2) skills or body of knowledge to be learned, and 3) expected outcomes or levels of appropriate achievement. When the student population is different culturally, a fourth variable, cultural orientation, must be included in the process. A description of the design process which resulted in the English for Petrochemical Plant Operators Program follows.

A most valuable tool in curriculum design is the needs assessment; yet given the limited time we were alloted, such an assessment had to be abbreviated to the extent that we cannot truthfully report that an assesssment was made. We were given only bits and pieces of information, much of which later proved false or at best overstated. For example, we were told that the trainees would be high school graduates approximately 17 to 35 years of age. Each of the trainees had been tested prior to acceptance in the program and had received an acceptable score. The test administered was not named nor was a synopsis or its contents, validity, or reliability presented.

As a result of the information received, we expected a group of forty young men who were literate and who had been selected on the basis of a test. Our questions concerning previous study of English as a Second Language yielded a qualified yes. We asked if the trainees could write in English script and received the same evasive answer. Finally we wanted to know about previous work experience and were told that those records along with health records were unavailable.

Our next task was to discover the skill level which was needed for the subsequent study. Given the unknown level of achievement in English of the trainees we determined that a relatively standard four levels of study must be designed. The four levels would range from beginning, which presupposed no knowledge of English, through an advanced level which would be preparatory to the subsequent technological study. Each level would have a term of three months dividing the contracted year of study.

Our attempt to visit the subsequent training site was frustrated. In place of a visit which would allow us to assess the degree of linguistic sophistication required, we were given vocabulary lists and training manuals. Armed with these we designed technical vocabulary syllabi on the four previously described levels of study. We found that these syllabi must include name of hand tools, various gauges, processes, and operation terms. One piece of information we did manage to get was that both British and American terminology must be included. General vocabulary was to be taught in a separate class.

It was determined that an integrative skills concept would be used. Although the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking would be practiced separately, some mechanism for integration must be devised. This, we reasoned, could be done in the vocabulary study facet of the curriculum. Grammar was to be taught using a straight forward drill practice approach and a standard text chosen by the contractor; composition would take the form of sentence to paragraph to report writing reflecting the future writing needs of the trainees.

Instruction in handwriting was included for those who might not be proficient. Listening and speaking, too, would focus on description and comprehension of directions and commands. Also included was conversational English which might be encountered in a factory or other industrial workplace. We included less precise speech which featured reductions and argot common to workers. Finally, we determined that even coarse language should be presented.

This final curriculum included: structure, reading, listening/speaking, writing, technical vocabulary, and general vocabulary. Trainees would attend class six hours per day five days per week.

The evaluation of trainee progress was based on performance in the various classes. Promotion from one level to the next was determined by the achievement of an average score of 80 at the direction of the contractor. Unsuccessful trainees would repreat the given level until the 80 mark was achieved. Although we would administer our own test, we were told that from time to time contractor supervisors would administer their own tests to the trainees. Although we were given a general idea of the contents of the tests,we were not allowed to preview them. Our task, then, was to prepare the students as best we could knowing that a trainee might be whisked away at anytime and placed in subsequent training. As we later learned, these students were taken based on training slot vacancies and not necessarily an adequate preparation. Thus the so called "cut off" scores for "promotion" were flexible -- lower if more slots were open and more competitive if slots were few.

The fourth variable proved to be the greatest challenge. Not only were the trainees from a country only recently modernized but at least half were from non-industrialized areas of the Kingdom.

We had been informed that the trainees would spend at least two years in the United States: therefore, it was necessary to include cultural orientation. Further our research indicated that, given the short period of time we had and the future careers of the trainees, great attention should be paid to their preferred or customary learning style.

Culturally rich visits were planned. These included visits to area sites and to tourist attractions. Other trips focused on industrial complexes, trade shows, and sporting events. Dinners and western style parties completed the activities.

Guest speakers were scheduled on such topics as banking, health concerns, driver's training, and law enforcement. Films and pamphlets were presented. Trainees were encouraged to discuss cultural/social matter in class.

Further, our task included preparing trainees to assume the role of employee once they returned to Saudi Arabia. Such Western notions of punctuality and quality control were stressed. Absences were treated in the same manner as they would be treated on the job. Safety regulations were stressed.

In summary, our task was to prepare the forty trainees to live and work in the United States even though they would return to Saudi Arabia and assume their positions. Most of our curricular design had to be done intuitively since we had little advance information.

Regardless of the limitations under which we worked the project was very successful. As our trainees went on to technical training, we received reports that our preparation had not only been adequate but even excellent. Our trainees completed the technology phase with little difficulty. There were, however, notable failures. Of the forty original trainees, six failed to achieve the degree of fluency required. In our own defense, it must be added that these six were non-readers of Arabic and had not completed even the sixth grade as we had been led to believe. These trainees simply had too far to go. They did learn to read at a proficiency level which might be equated to a third grade level for an American. We count that achievement as excellent.

This experience has been valuable to us. We discovered that our knowledge of the techniques of teaching English as a Second Language, our familiarity with the English language, its various registers and applications, and our ability to deal effectively with a wide variety of cultural aspects has served us and our students well.

Our philosophy has been and remains: We teach English language learners not merely English language. And for whatever reason an individual or corporation seeks to increase facility or fluency, one factor remains constant. Regardless of our preconceived or studied beliefs about how language should be presented, our responsibility remains with the individual learner, his aspirations, his motiviation, and the ultimate end to which his study with us will lead.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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PART V

FRENCH FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

CULTURE AND COMMERCE IN FRANCE:

AN ANTHROPOLOGICAL APPROACH

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CULTURE AND COMMERCE IN FRANCE: AN ANTHROPOLOGICAL APPROACH

THE DECLINE IN ENROLLMENTS IN DEPARTMENTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES DURING RECENT YEARS HAS BROUGHT ABOUT A NUMBER OF CHANGES. IN THE ABSENCE OF A "CAPTIVE" AUDIENCE BECAUSE OF THE ELIMINATION OF REQUIREMENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL, AND IN THE PRESENCE OF FEWER MAJORS AT BOTH THE UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE LEVELS, WE HAVE BEEN FORCED TO SEEK ALTERNATIVES TO THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM TO ATTRACT STUDENTS TO OUR CLASSES, AS WELL AS TO ENCOURAGE THEM TO TAKE COURSES AT THE INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED LEVELS. IN MANY INSTANCES WE HAVE FOUND OURSELVES WITH THE ONEROUS TASK OF JUSTIFYING OUR VERY EXISTENCE! AMONG INNOVATIONS RESULTING FROM THOSE CIRCUMSTANCES HAVE BEEN COURSE CHANGES TOWARD GREATER CONSIDERATION FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN NEEDS , APTITUDE, INTERESTS AND BACKGROUNDS, AS WELL AS MORE ATTENTION TO REALISTIC GOALS AND MEANINGFUL EXPERIENCES. BY AND LARGE, HOWEVER, THE MOST STRIKING CHANGE SEEMS TO BE IN THE AREA OF "APPLIED" LANGUAGE STUDY. INCREASINGLY DEPARTMENTS ARE OFFERING STUDENTS THE OPTION OF TAKING COURSES SUCH AS LANGUAGE FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS, TRANSLATION, INTERPRETING, AS WELL AS CROSS-CULTURAL UNDERSTANDING. AND MANY OF THEM HAVE DEVELOPED PROGRAMS AT THE UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE LEVEL IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE OR BUSINESS. IN MANY INSTANCES SUCH ALTERNATIVES HAVE ATTRACTED LARGE NUMBERS OF STUDENTS AND RESULTED IN VERY VIABLE PROGRAMS. INDEED, THE VERY SUCCESSFUL CONFERENCE ON FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS HOSTED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY EVERY YEAR WITH ATTENDANCE IN EXCESS OF FOUR HUNDRED (THE NUMBER INCREASES EACH YEAR) ATTEST TO THE INCREASING INTEREST IN "APPLIED"

FOREIGN LANGUAGES. A CONTRIBUTING COROLLARY HAS BEEN RECOGNITION OF THE NEED TO BROADEN AND ENRICH THE CURRICULUM, AS WELL AS TO PROMOTE CULTURAL AWARENESS AND ITS IMPORTANCE. IN MY DISCUSSION I WILL FOCUS ON EFFORTS TOWARD THAT END MADE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TOLEDO.

DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1982-83 A PROPOSAL WAS FUNDED BY THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION UNDER TITLE VI OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION ACT OF 1965 TO DEVELOP INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR THE UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS CURRICULUM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TOLEDO. ESSENTIALLY, THE PROPOSAL SOUGHT TO "INTERNATIONALIZE" THE CURRICULUM BY OFFERING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES RELEVANT TO BUSINESS EDUCATION WITH THE VIEW TOWARD PREPARING FUTURE MANAGERS WITH AN AWARENESS OF THE INCREASING INTERNATIONAL ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS, AND WHO COULD FUNCTION EFFECTIVELY IN A HIGHLY INTERDEPENDENT INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT. NEEDLESS TO SAY, SUCH A PROPOSAL WAS AMBITIOUS WITH FAR-REACHING IMPLICATIONS, REQUIRING THE MODIFICATION OF EXISTING COURSES AS WELL AS THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEW ONES. MOREOVER, IT REQUIRED COLLABORATION ACROSS COLLEGE LINES BETWEEN THE COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES AND THE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS SINCE THE CURRICULUM ENVISIONED WAS DESIGNED PRIMARILY FOR THE UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS MAJOR, WITH THE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS DEVELOPED AND TAUGHT BY FACULTY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES. SUCH INTERCOLLEGIATE COLLABORATION WAS IN ITSELF NO SMALL FEAT SINCE TRADITIONALLY COLLEGES TEND TO "GUARD THEIR TURF," THEREBY OFTEN RENDERING COOPERATIVE EFFORTS BETWEEN COLLEGES DIFFICULT OR EVEN IMPOSSIBLE. MOREOVER, THE ORIGIN OF THE PROPOSAL IN THE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS MADE IT UNIQUE SINCE SUCH EFFORTS HAVE GENERALLY BEEN INITIATED IN THE COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES. INDEED, THE COOPERATIVE PROGRAMS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND BUSINESS

ESTABLISHED IN RECENT YEARS HAVE BEEN PIONEERED BY A COLLEAGUE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AND USUALLY WITH CONSIDERABLE DIFFICULTY IN WINNING SUPPORT FROM COLLEAGUES WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT ITSELF. (FOR A LISTING OF THOSE, SEE THE AATF NATIONAL BULLETIN, 10, 2(NOVEMBER 1984), P. 3). REGARDLESS OF THEIR ORIGINS, EVIDENTLY SUCH PROGRAMS HAVE BEEN RATHER SUCCESSFUL AND OFFER A VERY VIABLE ALTERNATIVE TO THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM IN DEPARTMENTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES. IN FACT, IN A NUMBER OF CASES THEY HAVE HELPED DEPARTMENTS AVOID UNFORTUNATE CONSEQUENCES WHICH DECLINING ENROLLMENTS OFTEN ENTAIL. PERHAPS NO BETTER EXAMPLE OF A SUCCESSFUL PROGRAM CAN BE CITED THAN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE PROGRAM AT EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY. FACED WITH DECLINING ENROLLMENTS AND THE THREAT OF RETRENCHMENT A NUMBER OF YEARS AGO, THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES DEVELOPED AN ALTERNATIVE "APPLIED" LANGUAGE PROGRAM AT THE UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE LEVELS, BOTH OF WHICH INCLUDED A TRAINEESHIP OR FIELD EXPERIENCE COMPONENT. IT IS MY UNDERSTANDING THAT CURRENTLY THERE ARE OVER 400 MAJORS IN THAT PROGRAM!

THE PROGRAM PROPOSED AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TOLEDO WAS NOT QUITE AS AMBITION AS THAT AT EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY. COMPARATIVELY MODEST, IT SOUGHT TO PROVIDE AN OPPORTUNITY FOR STUDENTS IN BUSINESS AT THE UNDERGRADUATE LEVEL TO DEVELOP FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS SO NECESSARY FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION AND PERFORMANCE IN AN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT, AS WELL AS AN AWARENESS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF CULTURE AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO COMMERCIAL PRACTICES. IN ORDER TO ACHIEVE THAT GOAL IT WAS DEEMED NECESSARY TO MODIFY EXISTING FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES TO INCORPORATE WITHIN THEM RELEVANT BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS TERMINOLOGY AND CONTENT. THE RESULT WAS THE DEVELOPMENT OF TWO COURSES IN FRENCH, SPANISH, GERMAN

AND RUSSIAN: ONE ON BUSINESS, AND THE OTHER ON CULTURE AND COMMERCE. IN MY DISCUSSION I WILL FOCUS ON THE LATTER SINCE IT IS THE COURSE IN WHICH I HAVE BEEN DIRECTLY INVOLVED.

THE PROGRAM ENVISIONED IN THE PROPOSAL WAS UNIQUE IN THAT IT SOUGHT THE EFFECTIVE INTEGRATON OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPONENT IN THE UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS CURRICULUM. RATHER THAN TAKING THE TRADITIONAL COURSES ALREADY OFFERED IN THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES--AS HAS GENERALLY BEEN THE CASE AT OTHER INSTITUTIONS WITH PROGRAMS IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS MANAGEMENT (REQUIRING THE STUDY OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE)--STUDENTS WOULD TAKE COURSES GEARED TO THEIR NEEDS, INTERESTS AND AREA OF CONCENTRATION. MOREOVER, THE PROPOSAL OF A COURSE CONCENTRATING ON CULTURE AND COMMERCE AND THEIR INTERRELATIONSHIP WAS ALSO UNIQUE SINCE TRADITIONALLY THOSE TWO COMPONENTS MAKE UP SEPARATE COURSES. CORRESPONDINGLY, THERE WERE VERY LIMITED SOURCE MATERIALS AVAILABLE TO DEVELOP SUCH A COURSE, A FACTOR WHICH CONTRIBUTED TO THE DIFFICULTY OF THE TASK. ALSO, AS A TEACHER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES WITH A BACKGROUND IN THE HUMANITIES I HAD LIMITED KNOWLEDGE OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE AND COMMERCE. CONSEQUENTLY, I FELT A NEED TO RE-ORIENT MYSELF OR RE-CYCLE, AS IT WERE. FORTUNATELY, THE NEED TO MODIFY THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM IN DEPARTMENTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES HAS BROUGHT ABOUT GREATER EMPHASIS ON "APPLIED" LANGUAGE STUDIES, THEREBY GIVING RISE TO SUMMER WORKSHOPS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES DESIGNED TO MEET THE NEEDS OF FACULTY INVOLVED IN SUCH PROGRAMS. AS A RESULT, COLLEAGUES ARE INCREASINGLY ATTENDING SEMINARS ON FRENCH BUSINESS PRACTICES SUCH AS THAT OFFERED BY THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS IN LYON, FRANCE, AND THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE IN PARIS.

AFTER ATTENDING THE PROGRAM IN LYON DURING THE SUMMER OF 1983, I OFFERED A COURSE ON CULTURE AND COMMERCE IN THE SPRING OF 1984. THE COURSE ITSELF TURNED OUT RATHER SUCCESSFUL IN MY OPINION, IF FOR NO OTHER REASON THAN THE LARGE NUMBER OF STUDENT IT ATTRACTED. SINCE IT HAD NEVER BEEN OFFERED BEFORE, THERE WAS NO WAY TO DETERMINED WHETHER IT WOULD DRAW ANY STUDENTS AT ALL, SO IT WAS INDEED SURPRISING WHEN THIRTY-FIVE REGISTERED AND, UNFORTUNATELY, TEN OTHERS WERE CLOSED OUT BECAUSE OF THE LACK OF SPACE IN THE CLASSROOM. ANOTHER ENCOURAGING FACTOR RELATES TO THE POSITIVE FEEDBACK FROM THE FORMAL AND INFORMAL ANONYMOUS EVALUATIONS ADMINISTERED AT THE END OF THE COURSE. THE FOLLOWING IS A SAMPLING OF COMMENTS MADE BY STUDENTS:

"THE MOVIES AND SLIDES WERE VERY HELPFUL IN ESTABLISHING PERSPECTIVES ON FRENCH CULTURE. I FEEL I GOT MY 'MONEY'S WORTH.' THE LECTURES WERE VERY INFORMATIVE..."

"I FOUND THE CLASS THE MOST INTERESTING WHEN THE ASPECT OF BUSINESS WITH THE OTHER CULTURES WAS DISCUSSED...THE CLASS WAS ALSO MORE INTERESTING WHEN THERE WAS INTERACTION BETWEEN THE CLASS AND THE TEACHER IN TERMS OF GROUP DISCUSSION. I ALSO FOUND THE FIELD TRIP TO AMERICAN MOTOR CORPORATION INTERESTING."

"THE CLASS OBJECTIVE WAS MET; YOU GAVE GOOD BACKGROUND MATERIAL TO PROVE YOUR POINTS. ALTHOUGH I DO HAVE ONE COMPLAINT: THERE WERE TOO MANY BOOKS TO READ TO ARRIVE AT THE INFORMATION WE HAD TO OBTAIN; IT WOULD BE BETTER TO HAVE INFORMATION IN ONE OR TWO BOOKS; THIS WOULD MAKE READING AND STUDYING SIMPLER."

"I ENJOYED THIS CLASS. HOWEVER, SOMETIMES LECTURES WERE FAST; A LOT

OF MATERIAL WAS COVERED ON SEVERAL OCCASIONS. BUT OVERALL, I FELT I GAINED MUCH KNOWLEDGE ON THE FRENCH WHICH I HAD NOT PREVIOUSLY KNOWN."

"THE ONLY COMPLAINT IS THAT YOU TALK A LITTLE TOO SWIFTLY. ALSO, THE SECTION ON CULTURE IN GENERAL COULD BE CONDENSED."

"PLEASE TAKE MORE TIME WHEN SPELLING AND EXPLAINING FRENCH TERMS WHEN LECTURING."

AS FOR THE CONTENTS AND ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE ITSELF, IT WAS DEEMED PREFERABLE TO CONCENTRATE ON ANTHROPOLOGICAL CULTURE, I.E. EVERYDAY CULTURE, WITH MINIMAL ATTENTION TO FORMAL CULTURE SINCE SUCH FOCUS WOULD BE MORE MEANINGFUL AND WOULD BETTER ALLOW FOR PARALLELS WITH WHICH THE STUDENT IN BUSINESS COULD MOST EASILY IDENTIFY. CONSEQUENTLY, THE FOLLOWING OUTLINE WAS FORMULATED:

I. ASPECTS OF CULTURE

II. ASPECTS OF FRENCH CULTURE

III. ASPECTS OF FRENCH CIVILIZATION

IV. ASPECTS OF FRENCH COMMERCE

AS THE OUTLINE SUGGESTS, OUR POINT OF DEPARTURE WAS A LOOK AT CULTURE IN GENERAL: ITS DEFINITION RELATIVE TO LARGE "C" AND SMALL "C" CULTURE, AND SOME CHARACTERISTICS. WE ALSO CONSIDERED ELEMENTS IMPORTANT IN ANALYZING A CULTURE, SUCH AS VALUES, ATTITUDES AND ASSUMPTIONS. AND WE LOOKED AT MANIFESTATIONS OF CULTURE SUCH AS ETHNOCENTRISM, PREJUDICE, STEREOTYPING AND NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION.

FINALLY, WE FOCUSSED ON SOME CULTURAL FACTORS DETERMINING COMMERCIAL PRACTICES (E.G. MATERIAL CULTURE, LANGUAGE, AESTHETICS, EDUCATION, RELIGION, ATTITUDES AND VALUES). IN THE SECOND COMPONENT OF THE COURSE WE CONSIDERED ASPECTS OF FRENCH CULTURE SUCH AS THE LANGUAGE, VALUE SYSTEMS (E.G. FRENCH INDIVIDUALISM, INTELLECTUALITY, REALISM, LE BON SENS, L'ART DE VIVRE, FAMILY TIES, RELIGION, LA LIBERTÉ, LA PATRIE), NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION (E.G. PROXEMICS, CHRONEMICS, GESTURES); WE ALSO LOOKED BRIEFLY AT SOURCES OF FRENCH CULTURE SUCH AS SONGS, PROVERBS, FOLKLORE, CARTOONS, NEWSPAPERS, ETC.

SINCE ANY EXAMINATION OF CULTURE SHOULD INCLUDE CONSIDERATION OF BOTH INFORMAL AND FORMAL ASPECTS, IN THE NEXT COMPONENT WE FOCUSSED ON FRENCH CIVILIZATION, HERE PERCEIVED AS ESSENTIALLY SYNONOMOUS WITH FORMAL CULTURE. AS NOTED, THE PRIMARY EMPHASIS IN THE COURSE IS ON INFORMAL , ANTHROPOLOGICAL OR 'EVERYDAY' CULTURE; THEREFORE THIS COMPONENT WAS TREATED IN A RATHER SUMMARY FASHION, TOUCHING BRIEFLY UPON HIGHLIGHTS IN THE AREAS OF HISTORY, ART FORMS, REGIONS, INSTITUTIONS AND DAILY LIFE. IN THE FOURTH AND FINAL COMPONENT OF THE COURSE, WE DISCUSSED ASPECTS OF FRENCH COMMERCE AND CONSIDERED POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIO-PROFESSIONAL QUESTIONS. SINCE THE MAJOR THRUST OR OBJECTIVE OF THE COURSE IS TO SENSITIZE THE STUDENT TO THE CLOSE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE AND COMMERCE, WE LOOKED AT ASPECTS OF DOING BUSINESS IN FRANCE AND CONSIDERED SUCH THINGS AS MAKING AN APPOINTMENT, ARRIVING IN FRANCE, THE FIRST MEETING, NEGOTIATIONS IN TRANSACTING BUSINESS, FINALIZING NEGOTIATIONS AND FORMALITIES.

BASICALLY THE COURSE WAS ORGANIZED AROUND LECTURES WITH DISCUSSIONS, HANDOUTS, TRANSPARENCIES, SLIDES, MOVIES AND FIELD TRIPS. STUDENTS HAD

A MID-TERM AND FINAL EXAM, AND A GROUP PROJECT. NOT SURPRISINGLY, A MAJOR PROBLEM WAS FINDING SUITABLE SOURCE MATERIALS. AS FAR AS CAN BE DETERMINED, THERE IS NO PUBLISHED MATERIAL TREATING CULTURE AND COMMERCE IN FRANCE AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP; CONSEQUENTLY, STUDENTS WERE GIVEN HANDOUTS AND REQUIRED TO READ FROM MATERIALS PLACED ON RESERVE IN THE LIBRARY. OF REFERENCES USED IN THE COURSE, THE FOLLOWING WERE ESPECIALLY HELPFUL:

JOSEPH T. CARROLL,
THE FRENCH: HOW THEY LIVE AND WORK.
NEW YORK: PRAEGER, 1969.

LYNN M. HILTON, EDITOR,
FRANCE: ITS PEOPLE AND CULTURE.
SKOKIE, IL: NATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY, 1982.

EDWARD T. HALL,
THE SILENT LANGUAGE.
NEW YORK: ANCHOR/DOUBLEDAY, 1959.

ELISE C. SMITH AND LOUISE FIBER LUCE, EDITORS,
_TOWARD INTERNATIONALISM: READINGS
IN CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION_.
ROWLEY, MA: NEWBURY HOUSE PUBLISHERS, 1979.

VERN TERPSTRA,
THE CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS.
CINCINATI: SOUTHWESTERN PUBLISHING CO., 1978.

FOR AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS USED IN THE COURSE, I FOUND THE FRENCH AMERICAN CULTURAL SERVICES (FACSEA, 972 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK 10021, 212-737-9700) VERY USEFUL FOR SHORT FILMS ON VARIOUS ASPECTS OF FRENCH CULTURE AND SOCIETY, ALTHOUGH THE SERVICE PROVIDED BY THAT ORGANIZATION WAS NOT ALWAYS RELIABLE. FOR EXAMPLE, ON MORE THAN ONE OCCASION I DID NOT RECEIVE THE TITLE ORDERED OR THE LANGUAGE REQUESTED. APART FROM THAT KIND OF ANNOYANCE, THERE IS A WIDE CHOICE OF TITLES LISTED THAT ARE AVAILABLE ON VIDEO CASSETTE, THE RENTAL FEE IS VERY REASONABLE, AND IT IS EVEN POSSIBLE TO PURCHASE CERTAIN TITLES. OTHER MATERIALS, SUCH AS SLIDES AND FILMSTRIPS, WERE OBTAINED FROM GESSLER PUBLISHING COMPANY (900 BROADWAY, NEW YORK 10003, 212-673-3113). ALSO USEFUL AS A SOURCE FOR INEXPENSIVE MATERIALS IS THE NATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY (8259 NILES CENTER ROAD, SKOKIE, IL 60077.

THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS (35) REGISTERING FOR THE COURSE WHEN IT WAS OFFERED LAST YEAR FOR THE FIRST TIME INDICATE THAT THERE IS AMPLE INTEREST. CONSEQUENTLY, OUR PLANS INCLUDE OFFERING THE COURSE ANNUALLY AS LONG AS THE INTEREST EXIST. MOREOVER, WE HAVE BEGUN PRELIMINARY DISCUSSIONS WITH COLLEAGUES IN THE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS TOWARD DEVELOPING AN UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE PROGRAM IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS. FOR THOSE COLLEAGUES CONSIDERING A SIMILAR PROGRAM OR EVEN ONE OR TWO COURSES ONLY IN THE AREA OF "APPLIED" FOREIGN LANGUAGES, I WOULD OFFER THE FOLLOWING SUGGESTIONS:

--AFTER IDENTIFYING COLLEAGUES WHO ARE GENUINELY INTERESTED, IT IS IMPORTANT THAT THEY UNDERGO INTENSIVE TRAINING PRIOR TO TEACHING IN THE PROGRAM. AS MENTIONED, THERE ARE A NUMBER OF

SEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS OFFERED BOTH IN THE UNITED STATES AND ABROAD. IN FRANCE THERE ARE AT LEAST FOUR PROGRAMS OFFERED DURING THE SUMMER WITH STIPENDS AVAILABLE FROM THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT. IN THE UNITED STATES, THE FRENCH CONSULATE IN CHICAGO HAS SPONSORED WEEK-LONG SEMINARS ON "LE FRANÇAIS DES AFFAIRES;" WHEREAS SIMILAR WORKSHOPS ARE USUALLY OFFERED AT THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF FRENCH AND THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

--SUFFICIENT RELEASE TIME SHOULD BE PROVIDED FOR FACULTY TO DEVELOP COURSE MATERIALS; IDEALLY, THE INSTITUTION WOULD PROVIDE SUMMER FACULTY DEVELOPMENT GRANTS.

--SUBSTANTIAL FINANCIAL SUPPORT SHOULD BE OBTAINED FROM THE UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION IN ADVANCE.

--SUITABLE RECOGNITION SHOULD BE ACCORDED FOR SUCH EFFORTS AT THE TIME OF SALARY, TENURE AND PROMOTION CONSIDERATIONS.

IN THE FINAL ANALYSIS, WE SHOULD CONSTANTLY SEEK WAYS TO IMPROVE OUR EFFECTIVENESS AS TEACHERS AND PROVIDE A MEANINGFUL EXPERIENCE FOR OUR STUDENTS. THE ALTERNATIVES TO THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM LARGELY DICTATED BY CHANGING TIMES, CIRCUMSTANCES, NEEDS AND INTERESTS HAVE THE POTENTIAL FOR MAKING A SIGNIFICANT CONTRIBUTION.

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THE COMMERCIAL COURSE: DEFENSE ET ILLUSTRATION

By

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Spartanburg, South Carolina

SPARTANBURG
SOUTH CAROLINA
29301

The Commercial Course: Défense et Illustration

Modern-day problems in language teaching can in part be attributed to the growing gap between student desires and departmental offerings. There has been a tremendous growth of interest in the past few years in what is commonly called the "practical side" of language study. I find this term a bit misleading, because, for years now, language study has had a very practical aim: namely to enable the student to enter into the teaching profession. In the last 10-15 years we have seen fewer and fewer students interested in teaching, but language departments have, in general, made little attempt to adjust to this new reality.

Since my coming to Converse College in 1979, we have had one education major in languages; and many schools haven't had any in years.

One solution to dwindling enrollments and student apathy towards foreign languages would certainly be a greater variety in foreign language course offerings. I am by no means advocating that we try to establish language programs for each student's chosen profession, i.e. à la carte. Such an idea would dissipate the energies of the language department, and, in the end, satisfy neither students nor faculty. More and more departments are becoming interested in the study of commercial language, if for no other reason than that there has been a proliferation of business majors at all colleges and universities. Whether the school be liberal-arts oriented or not, you find students rushing to major in economics, statistics, management, finance, accounting, computor-science, etc.

With the ever-growing number of international contacts and dealings, it is becoming more and more apparent to educators and business executives around the country that a knowledge of more than one language and certainly an acquaintanceship with the customs of other countries--especially of their social rules for conducting business--are becoming more and more determinant in how well America survives the economic warfare of the 80's and 90's.

In an article in the summer 1984 issue of the Modern Language Journal (vol. 68, No. 2), it was noted that "the overwhelming majority of students attending U.S. business schools graduate with no serious exposure to the international dimensions of business."

At a seminar sponsored by the University of South Carolina (June, 1984) and held in Spartanburg for business-German educators, local German heads of industry strongly favored more foreign language study in the USA and especially deemed it necessary that their American employees have a better international business background. One of the speakers, Harald Behrend, vice-president of Zangs Corp., cited the example of the American business executive who, when quoted prices in Deutsche Marks, replied: "What is that in real money?".

Three very important problems arise when schools consider offering commercial courses:

1. the textbook. Over the years most textbooks have been geared not to a general public, but rather to a very select audience: students and tourists. In general they have covered such items as food (restaurant), the home, the educational system, shopping, etc. This rather biased choice of subjects tends to hinder rather than help increase enrollments. There are very few technical textbooks on the American market, but their number is increasing. In this respect, by the way, Europeans are far ahead of us.

2. college acceptance. Many colleges, especially small liberal-art colleges like my own, seem reluctant to permit foreign language departments to venture into what most faculty members see as a domain reserved exclusively for business departments. We often find an up-to-date version of the old quarrel between "les Anciens et les Modernes". Often the business department itself--ever jealous (as are we all) to protect "its" territory from encroachment--will set up formidable barriers to prevent any flight of students away from its ever-expanding reaches. To my great fortune, both Converse College and our business department highly support the commercial course I have set up and at present the business department is collaborating with us in establishing a major in international business.

3. the third problem is finding someone competent to teach the course. Most professors of modern languages know little or nothing about the business world and its particular language in their own country, let alone try to describe that particular aspect of a foreign country. Many others are simply not interested in delving into what they consider a very prosaic side of life. Several seminars and workshops are held each year in this country and in France, with the aim of not only drawing attention to the study of

technical language but also of preparing individuals to teach it. Last fall, S.C.O.L.T. devoted its whole conference to Expanded Horizons: Business and Industry. In France, in addition to the C.C.I.P., the Alliance Française, the Collège International de Cannes and the Ecole Supérieure de Commerce de Lyon all offer summer programs in commercial French. (hand-out no. 1)

In Europe, where a knowledge of foreign languages is essential for professional advancement, the practical course--whether it be commercial, scientific, medical, everyday--has been available for a long time. Introducing technical language into the foreign language curriculum in the USA is, on the other hand, a recent development.

The French, I find, have been able to more easily adapt to changing trends in language study than we have. Most French universities have no equivalent of our modern language department. Each language is considered an autonomous department. In addition, the different branches of the university (sciences, medicine, law, technology) all have their own language faculty that caters exclusively to their needs. During my eleven-year stay in France, I was a member of several different language teams, recruited to teach English to 1) scientific researchers and science majors, 2) majors in the School of Journalism; 3) in civil engineering; 4) in the School of Medicine; 5) in public relations and advertising. In addition I taught evening business-English courses for adults.

For each particular group a special program was devised without any problems. I do not think such a thing would be feasible in this country: our work-loads, rules and regulations and limited funds would preclude developing and offering so many different courses.

When I returned from my extensive stay in France (1968-1979), I brought back with me a wealth of information acquired first-hand through daily living and through the many years I taught English in a department of the Université de Strasbourg specializing in public relations and advertising. I also taught English at General Motors, Strasbourg (1973-1979), which helped to round out my "commercial" education. At Converse I quickly sensed the need amongst a number of students for a course in technical language, and I decided, with the school's permission and the department's backing, to offer a commercial French course during Converse's winter semester. It met with success and is now offered in alternate winters, the other winter being devoted to an advanced conversation course equally of my own devising. In addition to my winter course, my colleague, Dr. Jeri King, offers a course in French cuisine which always attracts more students than can be admitted.

My aim from the outset has been to introduce my American and rather insular students to the business world in France. I have not endeavored to explore any one aspect of that life in depth. Since my students bring with them varying interests and levels of proficiency, the only way to render the course workable and beneficial to all is to keep the material general.

A problem early on was finding adequate material in this country. Fortunately, I had brought back from France a great deal of material and decided to put together an introductory commercial French course relying on my own knowledge of French business terminology and practices and on material acquired in France. (show book)

One of my major concerns was to make the student aware of French business-letter writing practices, since these vary markedly from our own. With this aim in view, I showed them how to compose a business letter and established as an end-goal, in lieu of a term paper, a series of six letters representing the correspondence between two firms or an individual and a firm. It was up to the student to decide on the firm's product. (hand-out no. 2)

In addition to correspondence, I dealt with several other subjects: making and cancelling orders, shipping, discounts, billing, transportation, advertising, marketing, using the telephone, banking system, insurance. (hand-out no. 3) I ended the course with a study of how to write a résumé (C.V.) in French. (hand-out no. 4)

I have always considered vocabulary acquisition extremely important, and throughout the course give vocabulary quizzes involving no English. (hand-out no. 5)

After having taught the course three times, what conclusions can I draw? In general my students have been very satisfied with the course. At the end of the first course, they suggested I add the following information: the set-up of the Common Market; the types of French companies. This has been done. They also suggested that I add a follow-up course, but for budgetary reasons this has up to now not been possible.

Through this course I have been able to re-interest students in language study who were not at all interested in the traditional pattern of language courses and who had decided--inspite of their interest in and aptitude for languages--to end their language studies once the requirement had been fulfilled. Even students taking advantage of our Junior-Year-Abroad program tell me upon their return how useful the course was for them while they were in France.

With new high-school foreign language requirements being put into place throughout the country, entering college students will soon have better foreign language preparation before college and will thus easily be able to move quickly into specialized courses. We in the profession should prepare for this challenge. The commercial course is a step in that direction.

Seminars and Workshops, 1984-1985

USA

1. Eastern Michigan University
   Ypsilanti, Michigan

2. Le français des affaires: Strategies and Goals
   French School, Middlebury College
   Middlebury, VT 05753 (802) 388-3711, ext. 5523

3. Stage pédagogique et de perfectionnement du français des affaires
   Dr. Dominique Van Hooff
   Language Department
   College of Notre Dame
   Belmont, CA 94002 (415) 593-1601, ext. 258

FRANCE

1. C.C.I.P. (Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris)
   Enseignement/Relations Internationales
   14 Rue Châteaubriand
   75008 Paris tel. 561.99.00, ext. 451

2. Alliance Française
   Cours de français des affaires
   101 Boulevard Raspail
   75270 Paris, cédex 06 tel. 544.38.28

3. Collège International de Cannes
   Cours de français commercial donnant droit aux diplômes de la C.C.I.P.
   1, avenue Dr. A. Pascal
   06400 Cannes tel. (93) 47.39.29

4. Ecole Supérieure de Commerce de Lyon
   Introduction to the French Business Enterprise
   Dr. Robert Crane
   Centre de Coopération internationale
   23, avenue Guy-de-Collongue
   69130 Ecully

THE FRENCH REVIEW, Vol. LVII, No. 5, April 1984 *Printed in U.S.A.*

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NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

Modern French Vocabulary

by Leon J. Cohen

Some readers have objected to an "old-fashioned" word I listed (it was in a 1981 publication); others remind me that there has long been another suitable word for the one I chose. Sometimes there are two words with roughly the same meaning that are currently used, e.g. *coller* or *talonner; natalité dirigée* or *contrôle des naissances; programmerie* or *logiciel; séparateur* or *médiane.* At any rate, the words listed in these columns come from authentic and rather recent French sources.

Professor Richard J. Melpignano furnished items one through five. They come from Pierre Gilbert, *Dictionnaire des mots contemporains* (Paris: Les Usuels du Robert, 1980). Items fifteen through twenty-two were suggested by Professor Jeffrey T. Chamberlain.

Here is my list:	Here are the suggested answers:
1. hang glider	1. deltaplane (m)
2. snow removal	2. déneigement (m)
3. wading pool	3. pataugeoire (f)
4. road-salting truck	4. saleuse (f)
5. magic marker pen	5. crayon-feutre (m)
6. egg roll	6. rouleau du printemps (m)
7. built-in	7. encastré
8. elevator shoes	8. souliers compensés (m)
9. water bed	9. matelas à eau (m)
10. teleprompter	10. télésouffleur (m)
11. gang rape	11. viol collectif (m)

français commercial
devoir à remettre à la fin du cours

En vous rapportant aux documents ci-joints, rédigez six lettres, trois provenant des Etablissements DUBOIS & GROS et trois écrites par Monsieur Robert Teissier.

ETablissements DUBOIS & GROS	Monsieur Robert TEISSIER
25, rue Falguère	6, rue du Général-Leclerc
75015 Paris	88200 Remiremont

(voir documents no. 1, 2, 3)

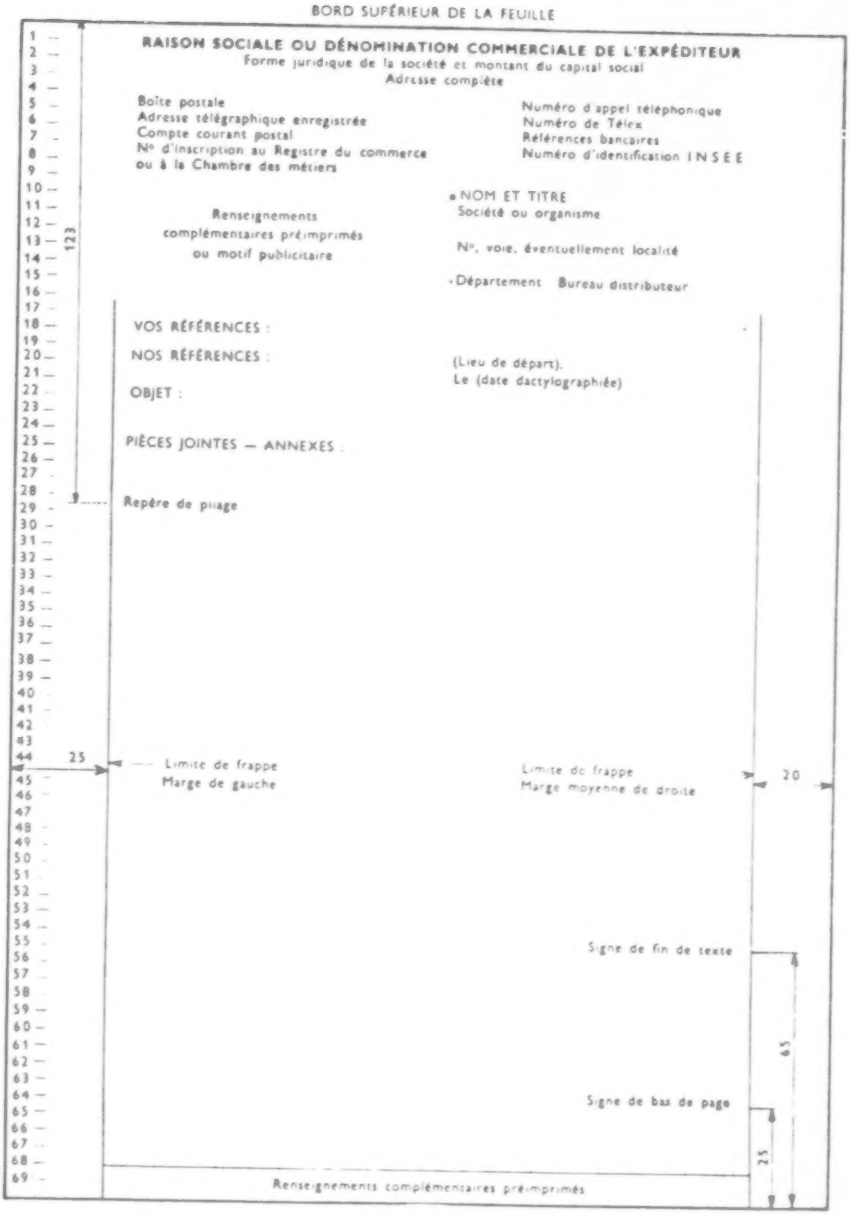
Contenu des Lettres

I. La demande de renseignements et réponse (voir doc. No. 4)
Robert Teissier souhaite entrer en relations avec les Etablissements Dubois & Gros pour des livraisons périodiques d'articles de votre choix. Précisez-les, donnez des références et demandez les conditions.

II. La commande et réponse (voir doc. No.5)
Passez une commande. Indiquez le mode de paiement choisi. Insistez sur les conditions de vente telles que les Etablissements Dubois & Gros vous les avaient précisées.

III. La modification de la commande et réponse (voir doc. No. 6)
Ayant reçu une commande de M. Teissier, les Etablissements Dubois & Gros se voient dans l'impossibilité de livrer et indiquent l'une des raisons ci-après:
grève, manque de matières premières, stock épuisé, pas de vente en détail, prix limite non acceptable, délai de livraison trop restreint.
Dans la mesure du possible, les Etablissements essaient néanmoins de satisfaire ce client intéressé par leur maison.
La réponse de M. Teissier: il annule la commande.

①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ou à la Chambre des métiers
Numéro d'appel téléphonique
Numéro de Télex
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Lettre au format A 4. — Emploi des différentes zones

②

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1 L'en-tête

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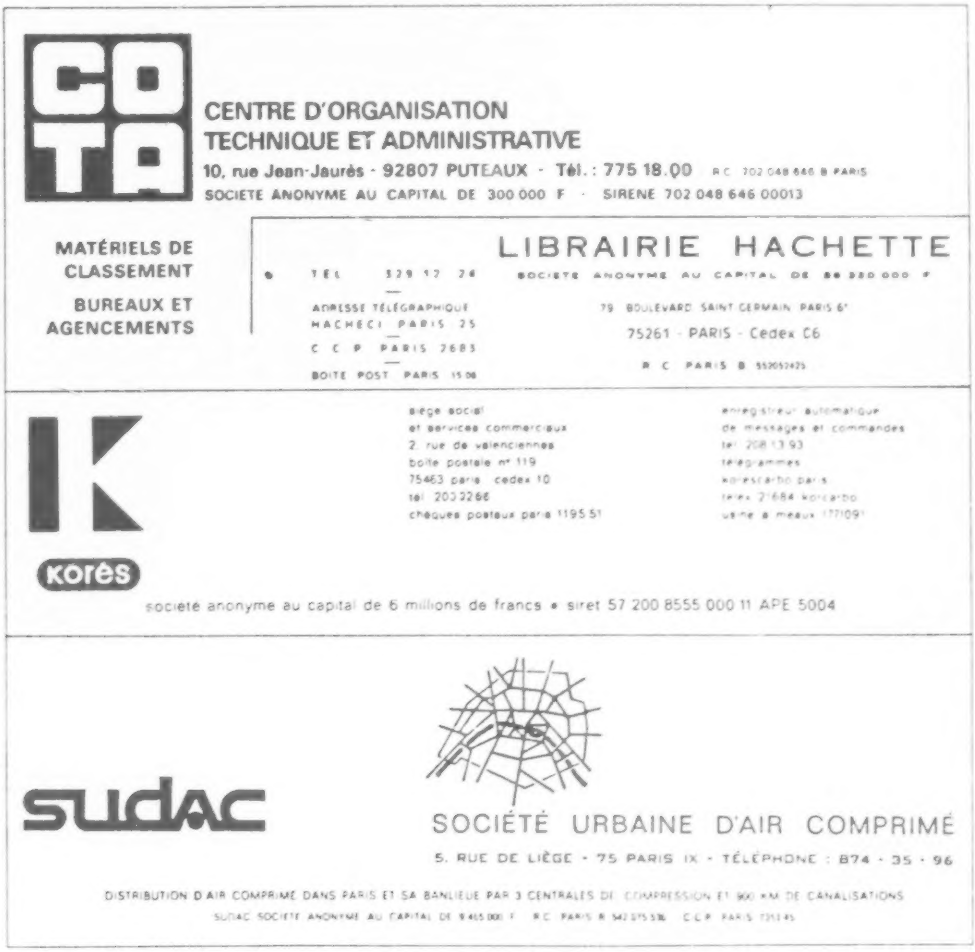

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(3)

COMMENT COMMENCER UNE LETTRE

Dans la *suscription* (qui sera répétée sur l'enveloppe ou apparaîtra dans son panneau transparent), évitez les abréviations :

Écrivez :	**N'écrivez pas :**
Monsieur,	*M.*
Monsieur le Directeur,	*M. le Dr*
Docteur,	*Dr*
Société,	*Sté*

N'usez des sigles, si cela vous paraît utile, qu'à la suite de la dénomination complète qui les traduit :

Société Internationale de Vente d'Appareils Ménagers (S.I.V.A.M.).

Ne les employez seuls que s'ils figurent seuls dans « l'en-tête » de la lettre de votre correspondant.

L'*appellation*, que l'on fait figurer en tête et à gauche du texte de la lettre, tient compte, s'il y a lieu :

de la fonction du destinataire :

Monsieur le Directeur,
Monsieur l'Inspecteur,
Monsieur le Chef du personnel,

de certains usages :

Maître,
Docteur,

de l'état des relations :

Cher Monsieur,
Mon cher ami,

Le plus souvent on écrit (en toutes lettres) :

Monsieur,
Madame,
Messieurs (si la lettre est destinée à une société).

Le début du texte de la lettre est fonction des cas suivants :

— réponse à une lettre,
— première prise de contact,
— rappel d'une lettre antérieure.

a) Début d'une réponse à une lettre.

Il est d'usage de toujours accuser réception d'une lettre reçue, en rappelant la date et l'objet de cette lettre si l'on n'a pas déjà porté ces indications en référence :

Nous avons bien reçu votre demande de prix du ...
Nous vous accusons réception de votre lettre du ... relative à ...

Cette seconde formule, bien que correcte, a l'inconvénient de faire se succéder *vous* et *votre*.

On peut préférer d'autres entrées en matière, moins banales, plus concises, exprimant d'abord soit des remerciements, soit l'attitude prise à l'égard de la lettre reçue :

Nous vous remercions de l'intérêt témoigné par votre demande du ...
Très surpris par le contenu de votre lettre du ..., nous avons immédiatement recherché ...

Voici quelques autres exemples dont vous pourrez vous inspirer :

En réponse à votre lettre indiquée en référence, ...
Très sensible aux termes de votre lettre du ..., je vous remercie ...
Par votre lettre du ... vous avez bien voulu me faire connaître ... (me faire savoir ..., m'informer ...).
Il nous a été agréable d'apprendre, par votre lettre du ...

Lorsqu'il s'agit d'une réponse négative (refus, suite ne pouvant être donnée, désaccord...), il est bon de l'atténuer par un préambule qui ménage la susceptibilité du correspondant. On écrira, par exemple :

Par votre lettre du ... vous avez bien voulu me demander ... Il m'aurait été très agréable de satisfaire ... En raison de ... je suis malheureusement au regret de ne pouvoir ...

Remarquez que, dans cet exemple, le refus se trouve motivé avant d'être formulé. On aura, le plus souvent, intérêt à procéder de même sorte.

b) Première prise de contact.

S'exerçant dans l'inconnu, cette prise de contact par correspondance n'est pas toujours aisée. Il est alors préférable de s'en tenir à des introductions courantes, sans rechercher l'originalité.

Toutefois les *lettres de vente*[1], qui doivent frapper l'imagination, peuvent échapper à cette règle. Elles s'inspirent le plus souvent des dernières techniques publicitaires, elles-mêmes basées sur les applications pratiques de la psychologie.

Chaque fois qu'une lettre offre à son destinataire la perspective d'une affaire à réaliser, il vaut mieux qu'elle aborde immédiatement le sujet :

Nous vous serions très reconnaissants (obligés) de bien vouloir ...
Je serais désireux de connaître vos conditions de livraison de ...
Veuillez avoir l'obligeance de m'adresser votre récent catalogue ...

c) Rappel d'une lettre antérieure.

Il est assez fréquent que l'on doive rappeler une lettre restée sans réponse. Même si l'on peut supposer qu'il y a négligence ou mauvaise volonté du correspondant, il faut se garder de laisser percer un mouvement d'humeur ou une critique à son égard.

En pareil cas, on peut s'exprimer ainsi :

Par lettre du ..., je vous demandais ...
Dans une récente lettre, dont copie ci-jointe, je vous priais de ...
Je me permets de rappeler à votre bienveillante attention ma lettre du ..., par laquelle ...
Nous vous confirmons notre lettre du ..., par laquelle nous vous prions de ...

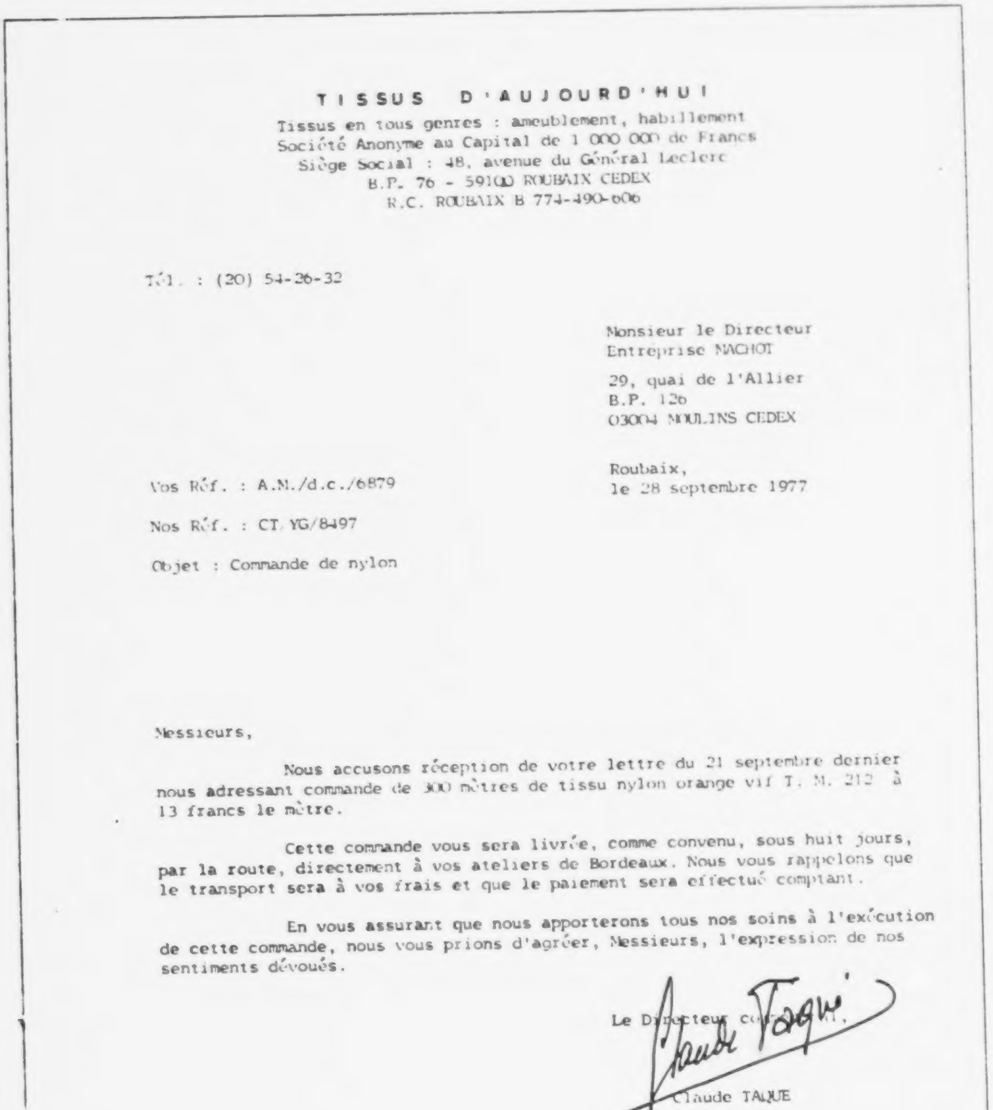
---

[1] Ces lettres de vente, plus difficiles à rédiger, seront étudiées au chapitre X.

Situation 2 : Le vendeur accepte la commande

4

La maison Tissus d'Aujourd'hui a reçu la commande de M. MACHOT (cf. p. 96). Elle répond tout de suite par la lettre ci-dessous :



TISSUS D'AUJOURD'HUI
Tissus en tous genres : ameublement, habillement
Société Anonyme au Capital de 1 000 000 de Francs
Siège Social : 48, avenue du Général Leclerc
B.P. 76 - 59100 ROUBAIX CEDEX
R.C. ROUBAIX B 774-490-606

Tél. : (20) 54-26-32

Monsieur le Directeur
Entreprise MACHOT

29, quai de l'Allier
B.P. 126
03004 MOULINS CEDEX

Roubaix,
le 28 septembre 1977

Vos Réf. : A.M./d.c./6879

Nos Réf. : CT/YG/8497

Objet : Commande de nylon

Messieurs,

Nous accusons réception de votre lettre du 21 septembre dernier nous adressant commande de 300 mètres de tissu nylon orange vif T. M. 212 à 13 francs le mètre.

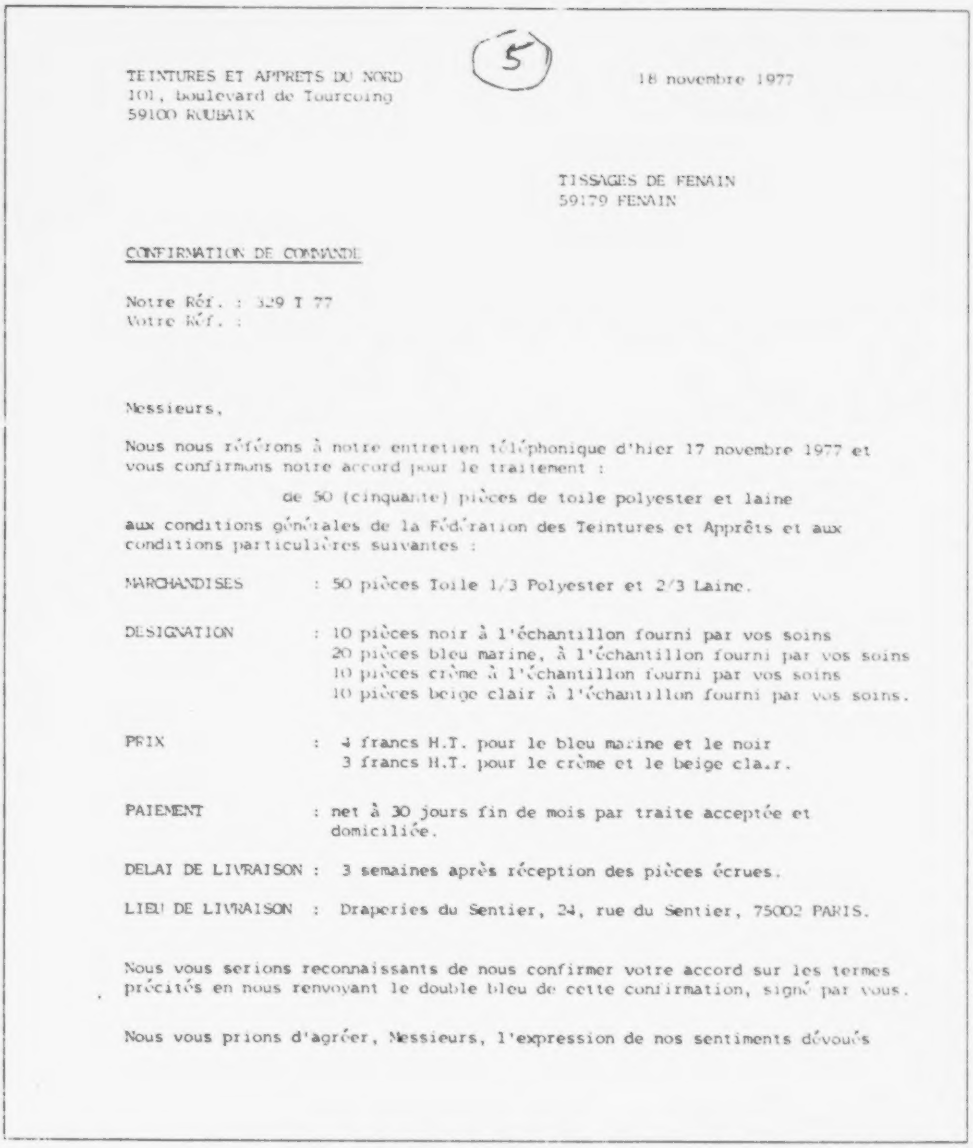
Cette commande vous sera livrée, comme convenu, sous huit jours, par la route, directement à vos ateliers de Bordeaux. Nous vous rappelons que le transport sera à vos frais et que le paiement sera effectué comptant.

En vous assurant que nous apporterons tous nos soins à l'exécution de cette commande, nous vous prions d'agréer, Messieurs, l'expression de nos sentiments dévoués.

Le Directeur commercial,

Claude Taqué

Claude TAQUE



⑤

TEINTURES ET APPRETS DU NORD
101, boulevard de Tourcoing
59100 ROUBAIX

18 novembre 1977

TISSAGES DE FENAIN
59179 FENAIN

CONFIRMATION DE COMMANDE

Notre Réf. : 329 T 77
Votre Réf. :

Messieurs,

Nous nous référons à notre entretien téléphonique d'hier 17 novembre 1977 et vous confirmons notre accord pour le traitement :

de 50 (cinquante) pièces de toile polyester et laine

aux conditions générales de la Fédération des Teintures et Apprêts et aux conditions particulières suivantes :

MARCHANDISES : 50 pièces Toile 1/3 Polyester et 2/3 Laine.

DESIGNATION : 10 pièces noir à l'échantillon fourni par vos soins
20 pièces bleu marine, à l'échantillon fourni par vos soins
10 pièces crème à l'échantillon fourni par vos soins
10 pièces beige clair à l'échantillon fourni par vos soins.

PRIX : 4 francs H.T. pour le bleu marine et le noir
3 francs H.T. pour le crème et le beige clair.

PAIEMENT : net à 30 jours fin de mois par traite acceptée et domiciliée.

DELAI DE LIVRAISON : 3 semaines après réception des pièces écrues.

LIEU DE LIVRAISON : Draperies du Sentier, 24, rue du Sentier, 75002 PARIS.

Nous vous serions reconnaissants de nous confirmer votre accord sur les termes précités en nous renvoyant le double bleu de cette confirmation, signé par vous.

Nous vous prions d'agréer, Messieurs, l'expression de nos sentiments dévoués

N. B. Les conditions générales sont celles indiquées p. 63.

Applications

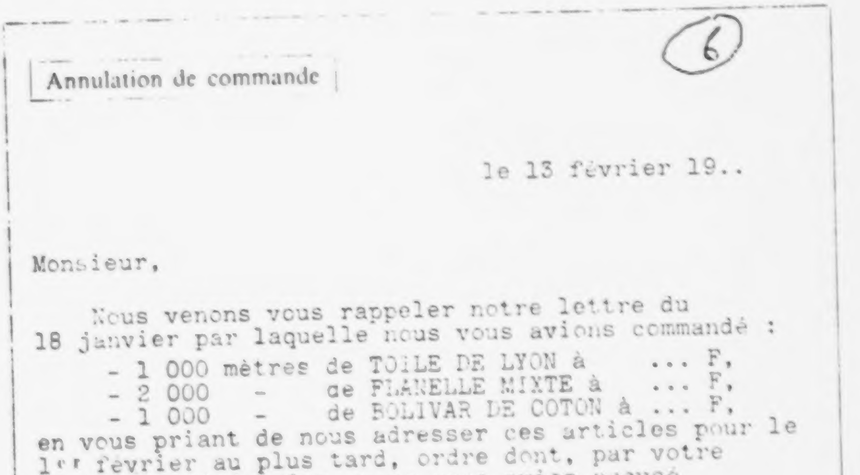
En utilisant ce modèle, imaginez trois commandes différentes.

Ensuite, pour chacune, reprenez les éléments et rédigez la commande sous forme de lettre (un exemple-type est donné avec les corrigés de lettres, dans le livret d'accompagnement).

Le fournisseur a juridiquement le droit de refuser d'accorder l'annulation (ou la réduction) d'un ordre qu'il se préparait à exécuter dans le respect de ses propres engagements. Sa réponse tiendra compte de la qualité du client (ancien, occasionnel), de la nature des articles décommandés (de vente courante, fabriqués spécialement), du volume de la commande, etc.

b) L'annulation de commande peut être consécutive au non-respect de clauses qui engagent le *fournisseur*, par exemple celle du délai de livraison.

Dans ce cas, c'est l'acheteur qui est en position juridique forte, et le vendeur, s'il veut s'efforcer de maintenir la commande, répondra par des propositions nouvelles susceptibles de satisfaire le client.



Annulation de commande

⑥

le 13 février 19..

Monsieur,

Nous venons vous rappeler notre lettre du 18 janvier par laquelle nous vous avions commandé :

- 1 000 mètres de TOILE DE LYON à ... F,
- 2 000 - de FLANELLE MIXTE à ... F,
- 1 000 - de BOLIVAR DE COTON à ... F,

en vous priant de nous adresser ces articles pour le 1er février au plus tard, ordre dont, par votre lettre du 20 janvier, vous nous aviez accusé réception et promis l'exécution pour le délai fixé.

N'étant pas encore, à ce jour, en possession des dits articles nous subissons de ce fait une perte assez appréciable, nos clients habituels s'étant, durant la quinzaine du Blanc, orientés vers des magasins concurrents.

Le délai de livraison étant largement dépassé, ces articles ne présentent plus pour nous le même intérêt. Nous sommes donc au regret d'annuler notre commande.

Si toutefois les articles devaient encore nous parvenir, nous serions obligés de vous les laisser pour compte, car nous ne pouvons emmagasiner des tissus dont l'écoulement se ferait, à présent, trop lentement.

Nous vous rendons responsable du dommage que nous a causé ce retard de livraison, ce qui nous paraît évident et légal, et nous attendons vos propositions à ce sujet.

Agréez, Monsieur, nos meilleures salutations.

BOUILLOT

français commercial
test: la publicité

Nom________________________

Faites une étude critique d'un des placards publicitaires ci-joints. Il faut y incorporer les réponses aux questions suivantes:

1. Quel public vise le placard?
2. Est-ce que vous trouvez un élément psychologique dans cette publicité?
3. Quel rôle jouent
   a. la photo (pourquoi tant de gens (Renault), une seule personne (Mir)?)
   b. le texte
   c. le titre
4. Est-ce que la mise en page vous paraît bonne? Si non, comment l'auriez-vous faite?

Publicité Renault : « La complice »

la complice
1718 AT 92
RENAULT
Les Renault sont lubrifiées par elf

Pour réussir votre évasion choisissez bien votre complice.

Préférez la discrète mais sûre, originale mais résistante, débrouillarde et pratique... En un mot, préférez la Renault 4.

La Renault 4 c'est la complice idéale des week-ends campagnards et des évasions champêtres.

Pleine de soleil et de joie de vivre, elle adore les longues promenades, sur la plage et les sentiers ignorés des promeneurs du Dimanche.

Amusante à conduire, facile à entretenir, encore plus facile à vivre, la Renault 4 possède toutes les qualités d'une voiture qui vous donnera beaucoup en vous demandant peu!

Se chargeant de tout et prête à vous emmener au bout du monde, la Renault 4 n'a pas fini de vous étonner. Laissez-vous séduire.

SI VOUS AVEZ DIT A VOTRE FILLE DE GARDER LA MONNAIE DES PRODUITS D'ENTRETIEN..

Et si elle revient avec une dose Mir pour vous, et beaucoup de choses pour elle, ne vous étonnez pas. C'est qu'elle est plus maligne que vous.

Elle sait que la dose Mir ne coûte pas cher.

Et que Mir Liquide nettoie tout.

La baignoire où elle joue (au lieu de se laver).

Les carrelages de la cuisine après l'heure du goûter.

La vaisselle des repas. Et les vitres où elle pose son nez et ses doigts.

Sans oublier les chandails de toute la famille.

La dose Mir fait tout ça. Et elle ne coûte presque rien.

Regardez donc tout ce que votre fille s'est offert avec la monnaie !

NETTOIE TOUT CHEZ VOUS
MIR

Mini Mir. Mini Prix.
Mais il fait le Maximum.

Publicité parue dans *Femme pratique* (nº 119, de juin 1973) test: C.V. Nom____________________

Choisissez une des petites annonces suivantes pour votre lettre de compagnement:

1.

Dessinateur
Exécution
Expérience demandée
pour studio de publicité
Riverchelles
7, bd des Capucines (2e)
tel. 233-67-28

2.

L'EXPRESS

LES ENTREPRISES VOUS PROPOSENT

Société BROSSETTE Dépt AFRIQUE
recherche
pour diriger son B.E. à LYON

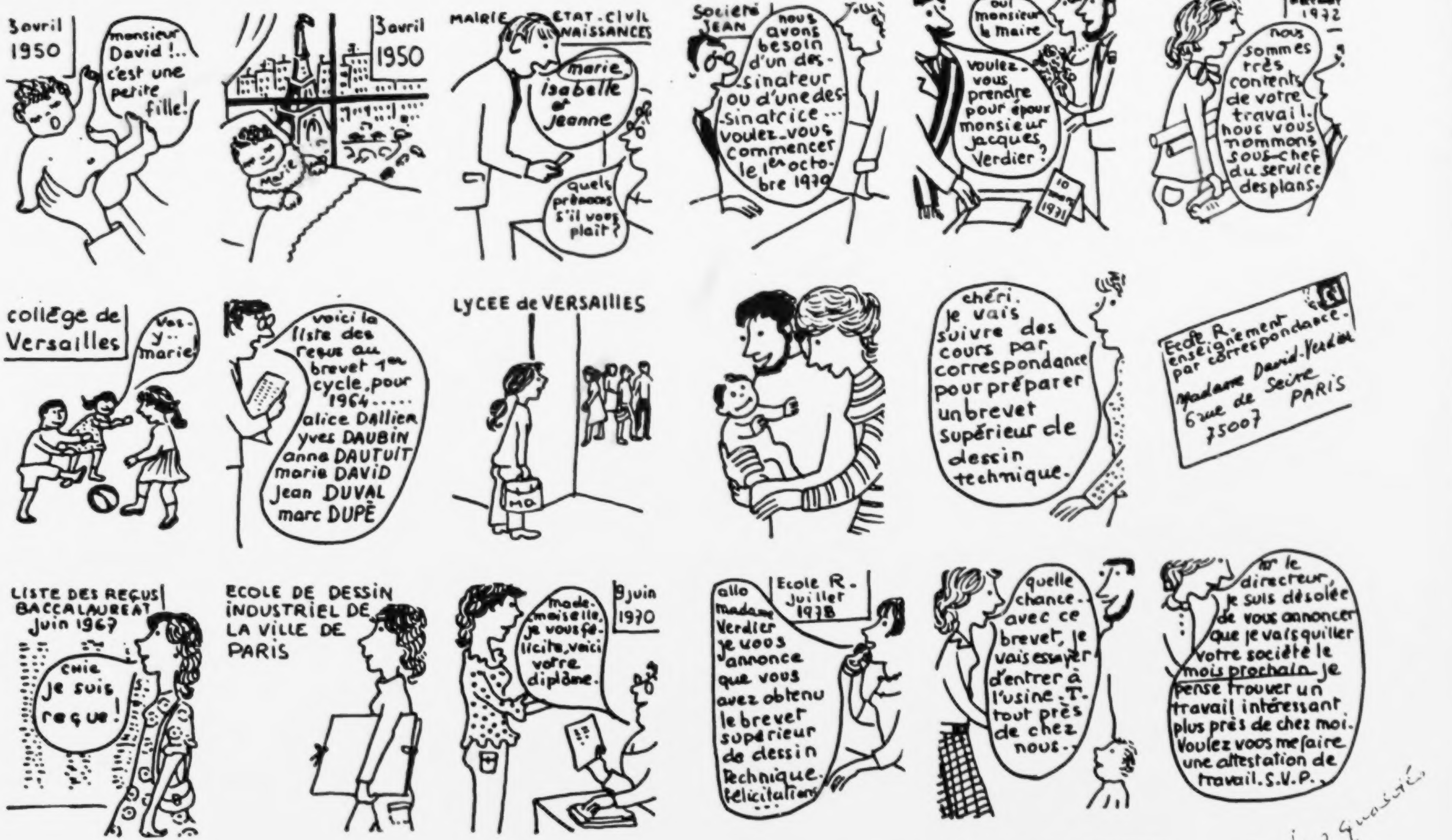
DESSINATEUR CHEF DE GROUPE
ayant grande expérience de menuiserie aluminium.
Connaissance de l'Anglais indispensable.

La personne recherchée aura la position CADRE et sera appelée à se déplacer fréquemment en Afrique Noire.

Env. C.V. + photo + prétentions sous réf. 535 à ARCHAT,
69288 LYON Cedex 1, qui transmettra.
EI

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Marie Verdier


3 avril 1950
monsieur David !.. c'est une petite fille !
3 avril 1950
marie
MAIRIE
ETAT-CIVIL NAISSANCES
marie isabelle et jeanne
quels prénoms s'il vous plait ?
Société JEAN
nous avons besoin d'un dessinateur ou d'une dessinatrice... voulez-vous commencer le 1er octobre 1970
oui monsieur le maire
voulez-vous prendre pour époux monsieur jacques Verdier ?
10 mars 1971
12 décembre 1972
nous sommes très contents de votre travail. nous vous nommons sous-chef du service des plans.
collège de Versailles
vas-y.. marie !
voici la liste des reçus au brevet 1er cycle, pour 1964..... alice DALLIER yves DAUBIN anne DAUTUIT marie DAVID jean DUVAL marc DUPÉ
LYCEE de VERSAILLES
MD
chéri, je vais suivre des cours par correspondance pour préparer un brevet supérieur de dessin technique.
Ecole R. enseignement par correspondance.
Madame David-Verdier 6 rue de Seine PARIS 75007
LISTE DES REÇUS BACCALAUREAT juin 1967
chic je suis reçue !
ECOLE DE DESSIN INDUSTRIEL DE LA VILLE DE PARIS
9 juin 1970
mademoiselle, je vous félicite, voici votre diplôme.
allo madame Verdier je vous annonce que vous avez obtenu le brevet supérieur de dessin technique. félicitations
Ecole R. juillet 1978
quelle chance avec ce brevet, je vais essayer d'entrer à l'usine T. tout près de chez nous.
Mr le directeur, je suis désolée de vous annoncer que je vais quitter votre société le mois prochain. je pense trouver un travail intéressant plus près de chez moi. Voulez vous me faire une attestation de travail. S.V.P.

Rédigez le *curriculum vitæ* de cette personne.

) les qualités

Français commercial
chapitre 2

Nom____________________

1. Quand vous expédiez de la marchandise, il faut toujours y joindre______________________________.

2. Le client reçoit d'abord__________________________qui l'avise qu'on a expédié la marchandise. Puis il reçoit______________________ qui lui indique combien il doit payer.

3. A l'entreprise c'est le service_________________________qui s'occupe des paiements des clients.

4. Si l'entreprise n'est pas responsable de ce qui arrive (happens) aux marchandises une fois expédiées, les marchandises voyagent ____________________________________du destinataire.

5. Si la marchandise est endommagée, c-à-d___________________________, le client ne doit pas l'accepter.

Réponses

1. un bordereau d'expédition
2. - une lettre d'avis d'expédition
   - une facture
3. de comptabilité
4. aux risques et périls
5. avariée

THE COMMERCIAL FRENCH COURSE:
AN ADDED ASSET IN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

By

Dr. Andrée Cochelin-Parrott

Department of Languages

College of Charleston

Charleston, South Carolina

Andrée Cochelin-Parrott
Professor of French

The Commercial French Course: An Added Asset in Language Acquisition

Since its inception and until the late sixties, the teaching of languages in the United States was exclusively the traditional instruction in grammar and literature. The results obtained were so much the more dismal that the majority of American students started learning a foreign tongue at an age when inhibition often prevented spontaneity and enthusiasm. Moreover, as years passed, the students' knowledge of English grammar, syntax, and vocabulary diminished and further hindered progress. After several years of instruction in high school and in college, a minority of students could read a few lines in foreign newspapers and magazines, and exchange banal greetings in another tongue; most had forgotten everything they had learned.

The late sixties brought forth a veritable revolution with the introduction of the total audio-visual method, initiated by the Armed Forces during World War II. Radical changes are bad because they condone extremism and do not allow compromise. The results of the exclusive audio-visual approach which eradicated the study of grammar, syntax, literature, and civilization-in the context of history and humanism-were much worse than those of the previous traditional instruction. The students were programmed to repeat ready-made sentences without comprehending their structures and the basic rules of correct usage. The parallel learning of English grammar and syntax, and the enrichment of English vocabulary, which the traditional method had fostered also disappeared. In all institutions of higher learning two hostile camps confronted each other: the proponents of the innovating audio-visual system against the traditionalists. That state of affair did little to awake a new interest in foreign language learning. Across the United States, many colleges and universities dropped their language requirements; that trend becoming more visible as business administration departments and their enrollments continued to prosper.

What was needed was a whole inclusive approach to foreign language learning, and practical motivation. Basics were necessary to read, write, and speak correct French, German, or any other tongue. The oral approach was to be more than responding to expected questions and exchanging usual greetings. Students of languages needed to develop and partake in spontaneous dialogues. The Americans had isolated themselves too long, and the knowledge of other languages and cultures had become indispensable to help the ailing economy, the falling export business, and the enmity met by Americans abroad.

Those conclusions were underscored by the report from President Carter's Committee on Foreign Languages. Its message furnished in great part the needed impetus and incentives which had been needed. Young people who knew different languages would be the agents of a free international exchange of ideas and would find enviable positions and financial rewards. Those were magic words for American college students whose primordial worry was to find their niche among the ranks of employed and tacit promises of advancement and success.

For years I had been a "traditional" teacher, delighting in literary critique and analysis; but I had always regretted that a small percentage of the thousands of students required to satisfy four semesters of foreign language instruction at the College of Charleston, continued advanced studies in French. In the early eighties, I realized that economic developments in South Carolina could offer a quasi-miraculous opportunity to reverse the regressive trend taken by languages, and change college students' apathy toward them into enthusiasm.

Given its stable, conservative business ambience, the availability of comparatively less-expensive land, the climate which allows year-round production, and the favorable tax situation, South Carolina had become a prime development ground for a broad range of foreign industries. In addition to those favorable factors, Charleston offered its deep-water port with car loading facilities; the presence of a skilled work force and abundance of labor; the promise of a large amount of energy and prices manageable for long-term use; the availability of more than 5,000 acres of land; the satisfactory transportation factor with ninety-six trucking lines, two competitive rail companies, and a well kept interstate highway. Today, "South Carolina ranks third in the nation in foreign industrial investments, according to figures released by the U.S. Department of Commerce. France and French-speaking countries (Switzerland, Belgium, and Luxembourg), Germany, Great Britain, and Japan have investments totaling $4.1 billions in South Carolina."[1]

In January 1982, I initiated contact with various French and French-speaking firms in South Carolina. Their domains lie chiefly in the manufacturing of textiles, tires, paper and printing, chemicals and metal products. I also spoke with professors in the thriving Business Administration Department at my institution, and encouraged my students and advisees in a double-major in French and business administration. In the Spring of 1983, I suggested to the College of Charleston Languages Department the addition to its curriculum of French 331: Commercial French. The proposition was accepted.

I must admit that I approached the task of teaching the new course, in the Fall of 1984, with avowed trepidations.

Reflection indicated that careful planning was imperative. Again, I spoke with the Michelin tire firms, the Alumnax Company, the Jamestown and Goose Creek French textile firms, and other French-speaking companies in South Carolina. The responses to my inquiries were unanimous: Rewarding professional opportunities were available for college graduates with a solid background in French and business administration. By solid background in French, they meant not only the knowledge of the technical vernacular and of all the notions germane to French commerce, but also and primarily, the ability to speak and write correct French. In addition, preference would be given to applicants who knew French culture, because those individuals would not have to be sent to France for cultural acquisitions at their employers' expenses.

Complementary data were obtained from former students doing graduate work for the obtention of a Master's Degree in international business. I wanted to know what had proven to be the most valuable assets, as well as the hindering lacunae in their undergraduate French background, and what recommendations they would advance to update my teaching methods and improve the College of Charleston French curriculum. The methodology I follow stressing grammar, syntax, sentence construction, and a parallel approach of French and English with insistance on translation from English to French was given total approval and credited for the success my students were having in their advanced studies. I was also encouraged to continue to stress oral/aural practice along with written expression; and to emphasize the inseparable notions of geography, history, literature, and culture in all my classes. A most useful source of information was the University of South Carolina at Columbia which offers an M.I.B.S. graduate degree and ranked second in the nation in June 1984, according to the Charleston Business Review.[2] The same source indicated that the universities of New York, Columbia, Harvard, Michigan, Indiana, Wharton, M.I.T., and Stanford have similar programs which combine areas studies, business, and foreign languages; their curricula emphasize analytical problem-solving in a business environment, foreign language proficiency, cultural sensitivity, and overseas work experience. The M.I.B.S. program at U.S.C offers French, German, Arabic, Japanese, Portuguese, Spanish, and English for foreign nationals. The two-year program includes an internship of six-months or more with a company abroad.

The data thus obtained indicated so many requesites for the new course that my prime concern was to fit all the essentials within the planned one-semester course. Recommendations have been made for the course to extend to two semesters in the future.

The choice of a satisfactory textbook was time-consuming and rather frustrating. Major college textbook publishers in the United States have offerings in the field of commercial languages. Contents vary greatly, and one must apply practical judgement in discerning the basic and essential notions from the more specialized ones. The fact that I was a novice myself in that innovative specialization helped me considerably in determining which texts explained new notions concisely and clearly, and which ones pointed out the particularities of the French rules vis-a-vis the American practices. I was most grateful to discover that several textbooks included well-comprised grammatical and syntactical reviews; but I had assumed rightly that special handouts on French culture would have to supplement textbook content.

Since time was a primordial consideration, the grammatical and syntactical reviews had to be presented in a compact form and to be included, for better retention, within sentences and paragraphs. To save time and increase effectiveness, the chosen vocabulary concentrated on basic words, current idiomatic expressions, and the specialized vocabulary relevant to each chapter. Useful types of applied exercises included dictations, letter writing, written and oral reports, and translations from English into French. The latter practice was emphasized for its usefulness in comparing the differences between the English and the French commercial terminologies and practices. Furthermore, samples of testing obtained from diverse French commercial schools, such as the Ecole Supérieure de Commerce de Paris and the Ecole Supérieure de Commerce de Lyon indicated that translation represented as much as 60% of the total test.

It was most rewarding to witness the students' positive attitudes toward grammatical and syntactical usages in practical situations. The reticence and impatience I had observed during the correction of papers on Corneille or Baudelaire were replaced by attention and willingness when the composition of curricula vitae and letters to prospective French employers or clients was in progress.

My experience in the classroom had taught me that the majority of American students were ignorant of geography. The acquisiton of wall maps of physical and political France was essential. Those maps were displayed at every session of the commercial course. Soon, the intricate river system of France, the repartition of plains, rocky reliefs, and mountains, as well as the situation and character of her boundaries were solidly anchored notions. I chose some excellent excerpts by selected French writers, such as André Siegfried, to emphasize the impact that the physical geography of the country and its situation in the northern hemisphere had on all aspects of the French life and culture.- The concepts of longitude, latitude, and altitude, as well as the continental or coastal factor were studied as additional determinants of the climate, the economy, and the mores of any region.

I showed my students that by looking at the configuration of a river, one could deduce if the territory through which it flows would be served by its navigability or its swiftness. The curvatures of the Seine explained why Paris, although remote from the Atlantic coast, is a great commercial harbor and features a ship as the central figure of its coat of arms; while the Rhône, the Rhine, the Garonne, and their confluents, rushing from their sources and digging gorges along most of their courses, present serious navigation problems, but are invaluable as sources of hydroelectricity favorable to industries.

The multiplicity of the French alluvial plains in a temperate climate determined why France has always been an agricultural country with crops still cultivated on 80% of its modern territory. The importance of the agriculture also showed why, in spite of its 3,000 coastal kms., the French fishing industry is not prevailing.

A good physical map indicates geologic structure, thus permitting speculation as to the kinds of crops thriving in a region. Whereas the low and rich lands of the North and West of France furnish the basic alimentary staples: wheat, cattle, and dairy products; the accidented relief of the South and East is propitious to polyculture: fruits, vegetables, vineyards.

The humid caves carved in the permeable soil of the Causses host the Roquefort cheese; the chalky soil of Champagne, undermined by rain and streams, offers its meager vegetation to sheep, while the small white grapes, high in sugar content, cultivated there, produce the famous bubbly wine. The strategic situation or the bustling economy of certain areas determined the existence of important cities which students learned to identify.

Thus, as they understood and discussed the infrastructure of French economy: agriculture, industry, trade, and transportation, students developed solid notions of physical and economic geography which are applicable to any country in the world. Such notions are most necessary as studies in the commercial French course must comprise the operations of the European Economic Community which includes West Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg, Holland, Italy, Great Britain, Ireland, Denmark, and Greece. The problems of the Common Market are France's problems, of course. They include the questions about the European monetary system which influences the fluctuations of the change; the disaccord about Euratom; the need for France to modernize her agricultural equipment.

Inevitably, the study of the Common Market had to include historical notions which the present generation of students tends to ignore. The new closeness of France and West Germany appeared miraculous as a lecture presented the birth and the development of the Franco-Germanic conflict through the centuries. Similarly, the entente with Great Britain and Belgium brought echoes from the far-away past, when these two countries were the sworn enemies of France. History should always be present, as modern France is studied, for one must regress into the past to understand and analyze the assets and the problems of the French contemporary economy. As Sanche de Gramont writes: "The past is a lesson to be learned and a legacy to draw from. France is atavistic in the sense that the same diseases tend to recur after a lapse of several generations."[4]

A whole vocabulary from "corporatisme" to "ouvrierisme"; a whole series of attitudes such as that of the peasant toward his land, and of the "patronat" vis-a-vis the labor force; a whole ensemble of structural situations (disparities between regions, configuration of French towns), find their origins in a past, sometimes quite remote. Thus should be explained how the essentially-agricultural Feudal ages, because of their iniquities, promoted a state of economic equilibrium, placed under the tutelage of the Catholic Church and protected from the upheavals of modern capitalism by a corporatism refractory to social agitation; how absolute monarchy, installed as early as kings François I and Henri II, and reaching its apogée under Louis XIV and his minister Colbert, made of the king the first capitalist who filled the public treasury through taxes. It was also the king's administration that was behind the model farms, the botanical gardens, the mines, and the large manufactures. But the coherence of centralism directed toward progress in all endeavors undertaken by the monarchy, ignored the misery of the peasantry; the whole system collapsed when bad crops prevented the peasants from paying taxes.

The social iniquities pointed out by the eighteenth century philosophers brought forth the Revolution of 1789 whose causes were economic and political. The birth of the affluent bourgeoisie combined with the discovery of new industrial and agricultural methods was to foster the economic impetus of the ninetheenth century. Students need a rapid but concise study of the economic stagnation of the Third Republic which led to demographic, economic, and political immobility; of the great upheavals of the Second World War, followed by the planification and the nationalizations of the Fourth Republic, and the revolutionary concepts of the European Economic Community of the Fifth Republic.

That background also explains, in great part, the personality of the French people which must be known by American students planning to entertain any kind of inter-exchange with French representatives. Above all, the students should be reminded to be weary of sterotypes, all too often inaccurate or erroneous. The images of the short, mustached and dark Frenchman, wearing a béret or a chef's hat; of the bubbly, fragile, and seductive French woman in a basic-black dress, must be dispelled. The vision of France as a melting pot, not unlike the United States, presenting various types in various regions, must be affirmed.

The French collective soul cannot be accurately described by Julius Ceasar's portrait of the Gauls as quick-tempered and independent, foolhardy and defiant, intelligent and intellectually-curious. More perceptively, students should be given examples of the "esprit français" which is a national idiosyncrasy comprising the emotional type: nervous, mocking, bantering; and the non-emotional individual: sociable and charming. The graphic humor which has recourse to the imaginative, the unusual, the unexpected, the absurd, or the poetic is well representative of Frenchness. A perceptive lecture on a number of traits which differentiate a Frenchman from other nationals should include the citations of typical proverbs; draw attention to representative symbols such as Chantecler, Marianne, and the Michelin-tire man; underscore the importance of discussions and politics, as well as handshaking, table manners , and gastronomy; and emphasize the total absorption of national culture in French people of all milieux, from the recitation of La Fontaine's fables to the visits of Versailles. To cite Sanche de Gramont: "The Frenchman is not someone who possesses a navy blue passport and speaks the language of Descartes, but someone who knows who broke the Soissons vase, what happened to Buridan's donkey, why Parmentier gave his name to a hash, and why Charles Martel saved Christendom."[4]

Indeed, a multitude of notions can be incorporated in the foreign language commercial course to explain and complement its intrinsic technical content. It must be carefully planned and constantly monitored so that it will become neither indigestible nor awesome. Its complexity must depend on the level of preparedness, astuteness, and enthusiasm of any given class, and its success is commensurable with the time allocated to its teaching; but, conclusively, its curricular addition is not a rupture from the solid traditional language teaching; on the contrary, it should prove to be a valid addition and a valuable asset to any language program which it endows with new life and vigor.

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COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTION:
THE GAME "LE CHOC DES MULTINATIONALES"

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Computer Assisted Instruction: The Game "Le Choc des multinationales"

Technology´s promises are enticing, but many foreign language teachers, inundated by glossy brochures guaranteeing student success if only the school will purchase the requisite computer software and hardware, remain skeptical. The attitude is certainly understandable. Teachers of second languages know that language laboratories make a specific, positive contribution to learning, but labs did not revolutionize the field in quite the way that early promoters suggested that they would. We are now discovering that satellite dishes provide access to television programs heretofore unavailable; however, videotapes, like films, cannot be used in the classroom without extensive preparation on the teacher´s part. Experience has proved that new technologies make demands on the teacher and tend to take time rather than save time, and we are all too aware that the introduction of a new medium does not automatically insure student success.

Yet there are sound reasons to embrace computer assisted instruction. Teachers find that students who are not enthusiastic about doing homework, learning verb forms, or studying vocabulary will quite willingly practice if questions appear on a screen rather than in a workbook. The use of computer equipment is now no more threatening than starting a car: understanding how the computer works is no more necessary than exploring the intricacies of fuel-injected engines. The vast array of available software programs is certainly worth exploring. What the teacher discovers, however, is that rather than being overwhelmed by the wonders suddenly available, he or she is surprised to see how very limited most commercially available programs are. Teachers remain the best judges: they know what their classes know, and they can quickly determine how relevant or productive any software package will be. Correlating what a software package has to offer with course objectives thus becomes one of the primary concerns of the teacher who is reviewing software.

The game "Le Choc des multinationales" is one of the few computer-based exercises that appear to fit into the curriculum of an upper-level commercial French course and that seem to help meet the commercial course´s goals. The object of the game is to be the player with the highest score, that is, the player who has greatest amount of personal equity when all turns have been taken. The opponent may be another player or the computer itself.[1] A player´s personal equity is always equal to the number of shares of stock currently owned by that player multiplied by the current stock price. Players, who are both stockholders and presidents of their own multinational corporations, increase their personal equity principally through the clever purchase and sale of stock and by buying other companies, known as subsidiaries, preferably with borrowed funds at low interest rates.

Whether or not the game will complement the commercial course depends entirely on the focus and scope of that course. So many aspects of study are implied by the notion of a commercial course that many different areas of study might be included in, or excluded from, a given course. A course dealing with banking terminology, for example, may or may not have an historical component; learning to write letters may or may not be a segment of a course that treats the economic conditions of modern France. The game in question, "Le Choc des multinationales," will complement a course in which the student studies terms and concepts like the following: base earnings, book value, capital stock value, earned interest, interest on deposits, loan interest, loans outstanding, price/earnings ratio, personal equity, prime rate, projected net income, public companies unowned, stock price per share, subsidiary earnings, value of subsidiaries, and yield. These, in fact, are the game´s key terms.

In a strict sense, the demands made in the game related to the use of the French language are moderate. A six-page pamphlet written in French that accompanies the computer diskette includes computer set-up directions, rules of the game, game play options, a glossary of key words, and a brief commentary on optimal strategy. While playing the game, students must both choose from among the options presented to them and answer the questions posed to them in written French by the computer. In addition, during the game, a number of World News Events, randomly generated by the computer, will be reported to the player. These usually involve two, three, or four sentences about various events that positively or negatively impact the profitability of the player´s corporation, events such as strikes, technological breakthroughs, and legal disputes. In order to play the game, however, the minimum French that the student must know includes the terms used in describing the rules of the game, the sixteen key terms defined in the glossary and listed above in English, and the two dozen or so terms used by the computer to present options and ask questions. Questions, furthermore, are typically answered with one keystroke-- by typing "O" or "N" for "oui" or "non" (yes or no) or by typing a number, for example 1 for "buy stock," 2 for "sell stock," or 3 for "repay loans." Consequently, students do not need to be fluent-- that is, they do not have to be able to generate meaningful sentences-- to play the game.

Likewise, to play the game, students do not need to have had an extensive education in the theories and principles of business and economics. Players do need to understand the relationship between the price-earnings ratio and stock value to understand what their stock is worth and to be able to read the report the computer gives them when they ask about their company's current financial status. Players should understand the bases for calculating their company's projected net income, a statistic helpfully supplied by the computer. Players must understand what the "discount rate" is and what the term "interest on deposits" means. They need to understand the meaning of the figures in the "yield" column when evaluating subsidiaries for possible purchase. These concepts are requisite for a minimal level of play. To be sure, students who are not versed in the theories of Corporate Finance, Financial Management, Accounting, and Management Strategy and Policy will be at a disadvantage. One of the great benefits of this game, however, is that students not formally trained in the aforementioned disciplines will quickly gain an intuitive understanding of some of their major principles and concepts simply by trying to win the game.

Specifically, successful players of the game will learn the advantages and disadvantages of leveraged buy outs. They will come to comprehend the effects of the price/earnings (P/E) ratio, interest rates, debt, and earnings on stock prices. They will understand the interrelationship between financial management, market conditions, and corporate acquisitions of subsidiaries. Finally, concepts like book value, price/earnings ratio, projected net income, prime rate, and personal equity will become meaningful as the player sees the effects of the interaction of these variables.

With practice, students will learn a great deal about optimal corporate strategy as well. For instance, they will see that it is best to sell (buy) stock when the price-earnings ratio is high (low) and interest rates are low (high). They will find that they can in general enhance their personal equity by increasing their corporation´s earnings through purchases of profitable subsidiaries with borrowed funds at low interest rates. The more astute players will rapidly realize the benefits of acquiring stock in their own corporations just prior to acquiring a profitable subsidiary. Another strategy to increase personal equity whose value will become clear is to buy stock before repaying loans, especially when the interest rate is high. Students will learn defensive strategies, too, such as occasionally buying subsidiaries under less than ideal conditions just to foil an opponent's prospective takeover bid.

And lastly, the game elucidates one of the classic conflicts between stockholders and corporate managers: what is best for the corporation from the manager's point of view (high book value) is not always best for the stockholder (high personal equity), and vice versa. The important role of uncertainty in business decision-making is also clearly revealed. After each turn in the game, the computer randomly selects values (within reasonable limits) for the price-earnings ratio, the prime rate, and the interest rate earned on deposits. In addition, World News Events of great portent for the player's eventual success or failure are randomly interjected. The result is that a theoretically optimal strategy can be undermined and may lead to a poor overall performance, while a theoretically sub-optimal strategy may be crowned with success-- much like in the real world!

In sum, the game has obvious educational value. In particular, it promotes an intuitive understanding of numerous principles of business and economics. Others agree with us: the game has been used at the Harvard Business School, in the Wharton MBA program, and at many other colleges and universities. The challenges to the players, however, come from the manipulation of concepts in business and economics and not from the testing of their French language abilities.

The conclusion suggested by our last statement may seem to be that the game has little to offer. Quite the contrary, it is our contention that the game can make a very positive contribution to the student´s learning precisely because of the bases for its challenges. A number of theorists who study the teaching of foreign languages have proposed that learning is most effective when language study per se is not the student´s objective, but when the student is studying subject matter of interest to him or to her in the second language. Steven Krashen proposes that language skills are developed when the student is exposed to what he has termed "comprehensible input." The language acquisition process then functions.[2] Elementary-level immersion programs also propose this principle: the student´s acquisition of the language happens automatically as subject matter like mathematics, social studies, etc., is studied in the target language. Certainly, the student who plays the game "Le Choc des multinationales" quickly starts concentrating on the economic principles and variables that must be manipulated for the game to procede, and the use of the French involved becomes both secondary and automatic. The element of repetition, too, helps: the same phrases in French recur. As a consequence, the game not only has the effect of providing a stimulus to use the the target language to communicate a message, but in addition, key phrases are reiterated a sufficient number of times for the student to acquire them.

To restate the case for the use of the game, one can make reference to a powerful tool that helps clarify why some instructional computer programs seem intuitively to be so much more useful than others, namely Bloom´s taxonomy of cognitive levels. The terms used by Bloom to describe his categories are the following:

(1) Memory- to memorize, to repeat, to recall, to list

(2) Comprehension- to transfer, to restate, to interpret

(3) Application- to apply a rule, to use knowledge

(4) Analysis- to take apart, to compare, to criticize, to examine, to solve

(5) Synthesis- to put together, to originate

(6) Evaluation- to judge, to form an opinion

It is clear that the mental activity required to play "Le Choc des multinationales" falls on the high range of the scale. The taxonomy is useful because it helps explain why so much available software feels disappointing: any software that remains at the first level, memory, is limited and, ultimately, dissatisfying.[3] There is, to be sure, a role for memory-based drills in foreign language acquisition. However, when the first level is the highest level that is reached and the sole focus of an activity, the activity will not remain interesting for long. Furthermore, a person who has memorized discrete items is far from being able to use the language for communication; therefore, what a software package that remains at the level of memory has to offer is not consonant with the overall goals of a language program. The initial reaction of many foreign language teachers to their first software program is "Is that all it can do?" Using Bloom´s taxonomy as a tool of analysis accounts for that reaction and provides the teacher with a means for evaluating a software program.

In sum, two possible criteria for evaluating a program are the following:

(1) The program should require comprehension, application, analysis, or synthesis; it should not deal solely at the level of memory.

(2) The program should engage the student in an interactive situation in which the study of the language is not the primary focus, but in which some subject matter of interest and relevance to the student is studied using the second language as a means of communication.

Using these two criteria as the basis for judgment, one may say that the game "Le Choc des multinationales" is indeed worthwhile for students whose knowledge and temperament will allow them to enjoy the buying, selling, and decision-making that managing "their" company requires. In addition, using the two criteria as a tool will help second language teachers evaluate other software packages and to decide what role the software can play in meeting course objectives. So long as the class and the teacher understand exactly what contribution the software can make, computer assisted instruction will be a valuable asset. Until interactive video run by computer and accompanied by voice synthesizers is widely available, it is likely that computer assisted instruction will play a complementary role to regular course instruction, in some respects similar to the role of sound tapes. But recognition of the positive contribution that software can make, with acknowledgment of its limitations and understanding of the level of mental activity involved, should encourage second language teachers to explore what this technology can offer their programs.

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FOOTNOTES

[1] The player of this game in fact has three options: to play alone, to play against another person, or to play against the computer. On the diskette that we purchased, only option three works. That fact does not vitiate the game's value, especially since we found that option to be the most interesting. It does, however, reinforce rule one of buying computer software for educational use: buy the program on approval if possible and try the game or drill yourself to be sure that the program works as promised and that the quality of the target language is good.

See below for addresses for purchasing this software, originally published in the English version "Conglomerates Collide."

[2] Stephen D. Krashen Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1982.

[3] For these insights about the relationship between Bloom's taxonomy and the interest of software we are indebted to Harry Grover Tuttle, North Syracuse School District, North Syracuse, New York. His article "Computers in the Modern Language Classroom," published in the The New York State Association of Foreign Language Teachers Bulletin, Vol. XXXII, No. 5, May, 1981, pp. 1-5, provides information about authoring programs as well as an overview of possible uses of programs.

A FRENCH CULTURE COURSE FOR NON-LANGUAGE MAJORS

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A French Culture Course for Non-language Majors

There are many ways of measuring success in our foreign language classroom. The standard barometer *we* use most often, perhaps, is "Have my students made significant advances in one or more of the four language skills"? Unfortunately, our administrators, those who calculate FTEs and decide on budget allocations, salary increases, promotion, and tenure, use *other* barometers. For these powers-that-be, the bottom line is, all too often, enrollment.

When I arrived at Utah State University in the early 1970s, the course with the lowest enrollment in the Department of Languages and Philosophy was French 420, the venerable "La Civilisation française." French 420 had been taught in French (since the Middle Ages, probably) every *other year* following the all too familiar method: chapter after chapter of names and dates pertaining to but not explaining art, music, geography, history, castles. Memorize facts for the exam. Forget facts after the exam. Confuse facts during the exam (Was it François I^{er} who built the château d'Amboise or Ançois I^{er} who built the château de Framboise?). Only French majors signed up for French 420--it was required. Students hated taking the course; teachers hated teaching it.

I would like to describe here how "La Civilisation française," our lowest-enrollment (potentially most boring and probably most useless) upper-division French course became, in two years, our highest-enrollment and most attractive upper-division class.

In short, the traditional French 420 was junked. And, lo and behold, as far as can be ascertained, no one died as a result. No one even complained! "France Today"--French 320--stepped in. The course is taught in English, and its content differs completely from what had been taught in previous years. The three-credit-hour class is offered during Spring quarter *every* year with approximately thirty students enrolling annually. Our handful of French majors now sit alongside majors in business, economics, computer science, political science, and pre-law. Student evaluations indicate a very high degree of satisfaction. What makes "France Today" so attractive?

The main dilemma faced yearly when preparing the syllabus for this course is deciding *what* to cover in twenty-eight fifty-minute meetings, two of which are for testing. However, this dilemma is to a great extent responsible for the success of "France Today." Bluntly speaking, when you cannot teach everything you would like to teach or feel has to be taught, eliminate the boring and the tedious and use the most interesting and stimulating. (This luxury, alas, does not exist for grammar classes.) French art and music, as great as they may be, will turn on very, very few students. These happy few can turn to the appropriate departments for more extensive coursework in these areas. Teach French gestures instead! Now that will interest all your students; they will tell their friends who will tell their friends and, voilà, you have future enrollment! Here, in extended detail, is an outline of the content of a typical French 320 course.

The first four class periods are devoted to "France in your Mind." The opening lecture (after distribution of the syllabus, etc.) centers on stereotyping: what is it, why does it occur, dangers. Where do cultural "concepts" originate (books, films, soldiers returning home, etc.)? What are some of the concepts the French have of the United States and of Americans? Some are serious (Americans are obsessed with money); some are silly (All Americans always put ketchup on everything). For the second class period, the students are asked to list the concepts they have of France and of the French. There are the basic "Five Bs" to begin with: bread, beret, bicycle, Brigitte Bardot. Then, of course, since all men are seducers and all women are loose, paramours abound. Fortunately, most students will quickly realize that any generalized statement regarding particular cultures should be examined closely in order to sort out what is valid from what is incomplete, superficial, or patently idiotic. This is also the moment to introduce the one characteristic overused when describing the French--the ubiquitous individualité.

The major part of the third and fourth meetings concentrates on discussion of a short article by Arthur Gordon on culture shock and an excerpt from Edward T. Hall's The Hidden Dimension.

In "How to Cope With Culture Shock," Gordon describes the symptoms of the malady and expands anthropologist Kalervo Oberg's description of the four typical stages of this "silent sickness": the honeymoon stage, the hostile and aggressive stage, the early recovery stage, and, finally, the near-complete adjustment stage. Gordon concludes with suggestions on how to "shorten the duration of culture shock or minimize its impact."[1] In the excerpt cited from his seminal work, Hall describes how crowded living conditions in France normally result in high sensory involvement and how this affects everything from architecture and automobile design to interpersonal encounters. He goes on to contrast the two major European systems for patterning space, the "radiating star" which is sociopetal and the "grid" which is sociofugal, and describes how the former pattern, evident in France, permeates the entire culture from the road networks down to the highly centralized pattern of the French school system.[2]

Between discussions of these more serious topics, it is well worth inserting brief items of a less serious nature, some of which may even relate to the subject in question. Students will always enjoy reading Art Buchwald's well-known letter "Dear Mary--Come Home," learning the origin of numbers (why do Europeans cross the number seven), and even realizing that French animals do not speak like their American counterparts.[3] A few enjoyable minutes can be spent discussing and offering examples of "franglais." Culture assimilators and mini-dramas can be used quite advantageously at this point also; short and often humorous, they can vividly present a gamut of consequences conceived in cultural ignorance, from minor misunderstandings quickly forgiven and forgotten to grievous insults of a personal nature not so easily, if ever, excused.

Few nowadays would disagree that individuals whose profession brings them in contact with foreigners should be aware that significant cultural differences likely exist. Being *aware* of this situation is the most important first step. Thereafter, a lifetime will probably not suffice to learn all of the differences. In the language classroom one can begin learning about cultural diversity and realize what some of the potential danger areas are.

The third year I taught "France Today," a young faculty member who had been teaching English to foreign students for eight years audited the class. Our classroom discussions concerning cultural differences and stereotyping sparked an idea in her which she shared with a colleague who had been teaching English to foreign students for over a decade. Together, they developed a new course, "Analysis of Cross-Cultural Difference," Linguistics 390, with FTEs accruing to the Department of Languages and Philosophy. All foreign language majors may apply the three credits earned in this class toward their degrees. The course description reads in part as follows:

> This course is designed to give students an awareness of what culture is and how it shapes perceptions and attitudes. The objective is not to give information about specific cultures, but rather to provide students with intercultural experiences (simulations, role plays, and field-work

projects) which will introduce them to methods for analyzing, understanding, and coping with cultures or sub-cultures other than their own.

The course will be useful to students who are interested in travel and study abroad, foreign language teaching, bilingual education, minority problems, international business, law, politics, military science, and psychology. (Taught in English.)

This new course, an excellent complement to "France Today," has garnered high praise since its first year and continues to attract approximately thirty students annually. Bottom line: the powers-that-be are delighted.

II

The fifth through seventh class meetings of "France Today" are spent discussing the history of France and the history of the French government. A student once summarized these classes as "Absolutely everything you need to know about the history and government of France capsulized in large print on 36 small pages." The reference is to two chapters assigned as reading in France: Its People and Culture.[4] Although these readings offer only a bird's-eye view of the subjects in question, the view is sufficient for this particular course and gives some points of reference which will be useful in many of the discussions to come. For example, on a concrete level, when Normandy, Brittany, Champagne, etc, are discussed in future classes, students will (should) recall the historical role played by these provinces in the past. On an abstract level, being aware of France's uncanny ability to swing back and forth between monarchies, empires, and republics, which were interspersed with revolutions of varying length and severity, could be helpful to the students when later discussions of French characteristics (such as individualism) occur.

A student specializing in French should certainly have a broad knowledge of French history and government; therefore we encourage our majors to take these types of classes in the History and/or Political Science Departments. Easily 90% of those enrolled in French 320 are not majoring in French, and thus the cursory presentation of history and government is ample. Class time is precious, for many facets of the Hexagon still remain to be revealed--facets perhaps better understood and appreciated because of a study of French history and government, albeit brief and superficial.

Yet, although class time is precious, the eighth class is taken up, alas, by the first exam which consists of two parts: (1) an open-book section on the history and government material, for I see no great advantage in having students memorize hundreds of dates and names of kings, etc.; and (2) a closed-book section on the remainder of the material (i.e., "France in your Mind"). The types of questions vary from year to year but are the basic run-of-the-mill perennial variety: multiple-choice, true/false-correct, matching, fill-in-the-blank(s), and short-answer (50 words maximum). In this manner, much material can be tested while avoiding essay questions, certainly to the great relief of this teacher and probably to many of my students. But for testers who prefer this type of torture (applied and/or self-inflicted) there should be no problem in formulating interesting and valid questions. Personally, I prefer a more direct approach similar to this: "In general, what do the French think of the manner in which American women dress? Explain briefly." Or, "According to all of the authors we have read, what is the French characteristic which seems to explain anything and everything occurring in the past, present, or future in France? Explain briefly."

III

The ninth class meeting is titled "France in the World" and it is at this moment, every spring, that I become amazed at the realization that certain individuals were able to become great teachers before the invention of the photocopying machine. (It boggles the mind to imagine what more Thomas Aquinas, for example, could have accomplished with a Xerox machine available just a few feet away!) From the ninth through the twenty-first class meeting, some 200 pages of handouts are distributed to each student. Photocopying is easier than other methods of reproduction and certainly more pleasing to the eyes of the reader. The costs incurred are covered by part of a lab fee ($3.00) assessed each student.

The lecture "France in the World" is designed to give the students a perspective of France perhaps new to them and which will be explained at the end of this section. The following questions on a recent exam give some idea of the points covered. Most students answered all of the items correctly. The answers are indicated within parentheses, intelligence for which some students would pay dearly.

A) True/false-correct. The underlined words are true and cannot be changed. If the statement is false, mark it so and then correct the error(s).

1. Of all of the areas in the world (Asia, Africa, North America, etc.), Europe has the smallest per cent of total land area (less than 5%) and the lowest population density per square mile in the world. (False, the highest population density)
2. In Western Europe, only the United Kingdom, West Germany, and Spain have a population greater than France's. (False, replace "Spain" with "Italy")
3. In 1980, the city of Paris (excluding suburbs) ranked only number 16 in population, world-wide. (False, number 60)
4. The population of Paris AND its suburbs represents about 20% of the entire population of France. (True)
5. The USA is 15 times larger than Europe. (False, than France)
6. Area-wise, Utah is about the same size as France. (False, about one-half the size)

B) Short-answer questions.

1. Approximately how many countries are there in the world? (167)
2. Area-wise, how many countries in the world are larger than France? (42)
3. Population-wise, how many countries in the world have a

population greater than France's? (14)

4. What is the only country in Western Europe (i.e., excluding the USSR) that is larger than France in area? (None)

5. Specifically, why was Montreal mentioned in class in connection with the French language? (It is the city with the second-largest population of native French speakers. Only Paris has more.)

6. Explain why French is so commonly used in Africa today. (Belgium and France and their colonial history, etc.)

C) Multiple-choice.

1. France has an area of approximately
   a. 109,465 square miles.
   b. 212,973 square miles.
   c. 53,290 square miles.
   d. None of the above. (b is correct)

2. In 1980, the population of the city of Paris, excluding suburbs, was approximately
   a. 10,500,000.
   b. 1,290,900.
   c. 4,920,000.
   d. None of the above. (d is correct. The answer is 2,200,000 and the figure was used repeatedly in class.)

D) Fill-in-the-blank(s).

1. In area, the USSR is the largest country in the world. The second largest is ______________. (Canada is the answer and no one ever believes it!)

2. ________________ is 40 times larger than France. (The USSR)

It may seem difficult to believe, but students actually enjoy the class "France in your Mind." This is perhaps so because the entire lecture is typed out, duplicated, and distributed to them at the beginning of the period. The entire lecture minus the key figures and names, that is. Such information is left blank and all (well, some) participate in trying to supply the missing elements. This approach helps stem boredom or confusion or both and makes obvious important material for the exam. The last page of the handout is a world map indicating all countries and areas where French is the native tongue or commonly spoken. The map also makes clear France's geographical position and its size in comparison with other countries.

Thus, much information is disseminated in fifty minutes in a fashion which seems appreciated. The summation of the lecture attempts to direct the students toward that perspective of France so important to keep in mind: consider the relatively small size of France, then examine its incredible history; its imposing contributions in the fields of art, music, science and literature; and its position in today's world: fourth trade and industrial power in the Western world, third space power and third nuclear power. And in this area a little more than twice the size of Utah are found one of the world's most famous cities, one of the world's most famous rivers, one of the world's most famous cathedrals, most famous mountain chains, and mountain peaks. Is France not incredible? All of this ... plus French bread and cheese!

IV

Two class periods (the tenth and eleventh) are devoted to "France in Europe." Zoom in from the global view of the previous lecture: France is halfway between the North Pole and the Equator (45 degrees latitude North, 0 degrees longitude--the Greenwich Meridian-- etc.), just happens to be near the Atlantic and therefore greatly influenced by the Gulf Stream. Next, hand out a map of France and the surrounding countries and bodies of water, but make life difficult and replace all names with numbers and have the students identify the items. It rarely fails: someone will label England as Denmark. Distribute a map showing all of Europe and Northern Africa, again all names replaced with numbers, and go through the identification process. This is the perfect time to introduce some of the following topics:

(1) Describe Gaul and the invasions by the Celts, Franks, Romans, Saracens (Charles Martel, 732, Poitiers and all of that), Normans (who will expand their territory in 1066), and why is all of this important? (France as a crucible, etc.)

(2) Romance Languages.

(3) Which of these countries are monarchies or principalities?

(4) Monaco. Monte Carlo. Grace Kelly.

(5) Andorra. The president of the French republic is automatically also the co-prince of the principality and for his services receives 960 francs in odd-numbered years,

whereas the bishop of Urgel (in Spain), the other co-prince, gets 24 francs, six hams, six chickens and six cheeses in even-numbered years!

(6) The "Chunnel"--the on-again-off-again project originally proposed in 1802. This topic provides the perfect opportunity to discuss Anglo-French relationships over the years.

(7) The European Economic Community and the European Parliament.

(8) NATO.

It is at this point in the course when you may just happen to find at home those marvelous slides you once took in Monaco or Andorra, or those lovely postcards you brought back with you. Do your students a favor and use them!

Eventually, your students will want to be tested on this new material and you will have to oblige them, naturally. Again here, true/false-correct, short-answer, multiple-choice, and fill-in-the-blank(s) work well and are appreciated. A multiple-choice with one or more answers covers a lot of territory. Two examples from a recent exam:

1. The "Chunnel"
   a. was built between 1952 and 1969.
   b. was half completed when World War II broke out. Work was halted between 1939 and 1945, continued from 1945 until 1948, and stopped at that point on the orders of Charles de Gaulle who did not particularly trust the English. Pompidou, de Gaulle's successor, order-

ed construction work taken up again in 1969.

c. is expected to be completed next year.

d. is just a project. Actual construction on a large scale has never begun.

e. will link France to Holland also.

f. is an idea first introduced to Napoleon I.

g. None of the above. (d and f are correct)

2. Which of the following countries does (do) NOT belong to the Common Market?

a. Spain

b. Portugal

c. Switzerland

d. Austria

e. Norway

f. Denmark (a, b, c, d, e were correct at the time)

Finally, the most-often missed question is the following true/false-correct statement: "France is halfway between the North Pole and the South Pole." Can this be considered a "trick question"? Let us have a show of hands, please.

Having discussed "France in your Mind/in the World/in Europe," it is now time to zoom in closer in order to study the country itself. Or, as I tell my students, THE country itself.

V

The remainder of the course is my favorite time of the year. I refer to the teaching year, naturally. Savoie's golden rule of the "Four Fs in the Classroom" is so easy to apply at this point: "For success, give the students Fun, Food, Films and Fantasies!"

Fantasies of travelling in France because you, the teacher, have made the country and everything in it so unique and appealing.

Ten class meetings (periods 12 through 21) constitute what is called "France Inside." So much to say, so much to see, so much to do, in so little time. Be selective! Be on the lookout for good slides, filmstrips, and films. And especially, with today's generation--I almost wrote degeneration--be on the lookout for good video cassette programs, a new blessing, perhaps even greater than the blessed photocopying machine. Good fresh Brie and Camembert will be appreciated also.

I suggest beginning with the obvious: a map showing the major mountain ranges, five or six rivers, plains, and a dozen or so cities, plus a second map indicating fourteen or fifteen major provinces. After this, I simply take my students on a "tour de France," beginning on the Côte d'Azur and working counterclockwise: up the Rhône Valley (yes, we do sing "Sur le Pont d'Avignon"), through Burgundy, into Alsace-Lorraine, westward through Champagne, Ile-de-France, Normandy, Brittany, then south to the Landes and the Basque country (ah! the fandango and pelota) and, finally, back to the Midi and, of course, Corsica.

I tend to say as little as possible, if anything at all, about industries and demography and other stimulating, intellectual topics, but rather focus on such items as (perceived) regional differences in character or life-style (the supposedly lazy but *sympa* southerner always inclined to brag; the grasping and sly Norman, according to the rest of the French, but simply prudent according to the Norman); or regional culinary specialties. Pâté and truffles are always a rich topic (great postcards!) and present the perfect opportunity to discuss the French penchant for liver ailments. From there, it requires but the briefest step to get into mineral waters and spas, always a source of great classroom entertainment. Duplicate and hand out recipes for beef bourguignon, coq au vin and onion soup; and always accept the students' invitation to have a crêpe-party (unless it has to take place in your kitchen!). As you "travel" with your students through France, take them to Mont-Saint-Michel, Carnac, Beaubourg. Explore with them the historic châteaux and then wander through the French gardens. Visit the great churches and cathedrals and explain the differences between the Roman and Gothic styles. As the perfect "classroom guide" you will soon become frustrated because there is so much to say, so much to see, so much to do, in so little time. Be selective! And if a picture is worth a thousand words, just imagine how much a 16mm film or a video cassette program is worth! Create those fantasies!

The quickest manner of bringing all of this fun and frolicking to a sudden (but temporary) halt is to have the second major exam (day 22). Examples of questions for "France in the World" and "France in Europe" were suggested earlier. Similar masterpieces can be concocted for "France Inside."

1. A famous folk dance typically performed by the Bretons is the "fandango." (False, by the Basques)
2. Which of the following statements is (are) NOT correct?
   a. The roads found in the Alps are better than the

roads found in the Pyrenees and have been so for years.

b. Tourism is a year-round industry in the Alps.

c. The Massif Central is a higher mountain range than the Alps.

d. When arriving at the base of the Pyrenees (except at the eastern and western extremities), one often finds a veritable block of mountains rather than a gradual ascent.

e. The French government, for years, has attempted to destroy the spa industry in France because this industry is simply a justification for casino establishments.

f. French citizens who go to spas for medical care can quite often actually receive Social Security reimbursements for some or all of the costs incurred.

(c, e, are the answers)

And, of course, a map with rivers, mountain ranges, and cities to draw in or identify and a map with provinces to name.

VI

Days 23 and 24 are spent examining a potpourri of topics, using various culture capsules found in textbooks or personally created over the years. The obvious advantage to this approach is its efficiency. One can offer very quickly and very succinctly numerous doses of information regarding France and its people, anything from religion to mass media via eating habits, dating habits, driving licences, tipping, truffles, and tripes.

We have, indeed, zoomed in even closer. This is, in fact, a study of the "stuff" that makes up the daily life of a French human being. It should help a student understand better the French way of life and realize even to a greater extent that "they" do not do everything like "we" do. Obviously, it does not and should not attempt to prove one culture superior to the other; it simply points out differences and reveals new facets to be examined. The Hexagon continues to be uncovered and discovered. And if someday the student visits France, the culture shock inevitably felt should be somewhat easier to cope with and the stay a much richer experience.

VII

Is it possible to zoom in even more? Can we look into the French mind? Obviously yes! One of the ways of doing this is to study French gestures. And this is how the last four classes of French 320 are spent. These are, without a doubt, the most enjoyable moments of the course, the ones former students mention years later.

After an introduction of approximately twenty minutes offering a "professorial" explanation apropos of gestures, I turn on the slide projector and the students. What gestures I have failed to collect on celluloid, I manage to perform live. The meaning and usage of each gesture are explained in detail. An excellent source of information is Laurence Wylie's Beaux Gestes.[5] For example, he groups some gestures under the heading "Le Jemenfoutisme." Students, of course, love to mimic what they are often seeing for the first time. Encourage them! And leave the classroom door open. Curious passers-by may decide to become future students of yours. Or one of the powers-that-be might happen to walk by and be touched by your scintillating performance.

Testing gestures is as simple as a snap. Make a gesture and ask a multiple-choice question about it. Example: "If a Frenchman makes this gesture to you, he is telling you in his very French way to ... a)_________, b)_________, c)__________." Or ask an identification question: "This gesture means _________." Or present a true/false-correct statement.

Learning about French gestures can be fun, certainly. More important, though, gestures are an integral part of a Frenchman's being and need to be thoroughly understood before one can profess valid claim to a true understanding of his culture. Furthermore, serious ignorance of the significance of a Frenchman's gestures may often preclude meaningful and rewarding penetration into his heart and mind and thus limit communication to a skin-deep level.[6]

VIII

We have travelled a long road, from "France in your Mind" all the way into the mind of the French. It is always with pleasant surprise and amazement at course's end that I reflect on how much my students have learned about France and her people in so short a time. Granted, it is obviously but a minuscule amount compared to "everything" one could learn over a lifetime of study and travel. Yet, for some, it has been the crucial first step of a journey, a sharpened awareness of a land far away so beautiful but so different from ours, and the inception of a desire to know more of this special country, her history, her customs, her language, her people. She is a multifaceted jewel, a gem worthy of awe and well worth pursuing.

Notes

[1] Arthur Gordon, "How to Cope with Culture Shock," A Leader's Manual for Developing Cross-Cultural Awareness in Secondary Students Who Travel and Study Abroad in France, James E. Becker, University of Northern Iowa, 1978, 55-59.

[2] Edward T. Hall, The Hidden Dimension (New York: Doubleday Anchor, 1966) 134-138.

[3] Art Buchwald, "Dear Mary--Come Home," rpt. and trans. with permission of the New York Herald Tribune, La France actuelle, Camille Bauer, rev. ed. (Boston: Houghton, 1971) 6-7.

[4] R. L. Walker, "The History of France," and Richard de Angelis, "French Government," France: Its People and Culture, Lynn M. Hilton, Editor-in-Chief, Focus on Europe Series (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1980) 1-36.

[5] Lawrence Wylie, Beaux Gestes (Cambridge: The Undergraduate Press; New York: Dutton, 1977).

[6] Much of the statistical information used in this course and presented throughout this article comes from sources such as Information Please Almanac, published annually by A & W Publishers, Inc. (New York), and Time.

FRENCH FOR "HOTELLIES"

A RECENTLY INSTITUTED COURSE AT THE CORNELL SCHOOL OF HOTEL ADMINISTRATION

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I.

It is difficult for us who teach foreign languages to imagine that, in today's world, institutions that prepare young people for managerial positions -- and in particular for managerial positions in the Hotel Industry -- may not have a foreign language requirement. This, in fact, has been the case at the internationally known Cornell School of Hotel Administration. Thanks, however, to the initiative of Dean John Clark, the School may now move in the direction of a requirement; since Fall of 1983, it has been offering a course entitled "HA 166: Continuing French, Le Français de l'Hôtellerie et du Tourisme," affectionately known as "French for Hotellies." A colleague and I have developed this course, a modest beginning, and we are pleased with its early results. It is the first course of its kind at Cornell, except for an elementary program in business Japanese developed by Eleanor Jorden with a grant from a Japanese foundation, which is a parallel program to her now classic course in Japanese for beginners.[1]

This does not mean that from now on we will see such courses proliferate at Cornell. Expanding this course or creating similar courses in other languages might yet encounter some resistance. I can illustrate this by an anecdote: I was crossing campus last Fall on my way to the Hotel class when I ran into a professor of English, a colleague of my husband. He asked me what I was teaching that semester, and when I told him the title of my course, he laughed heartily and said: "Oh! Yes, you teach them how to read menus!" It so happened that on that very day I was taking to class, as part of my lesson on French eating habits, excerpts from Rabelais, Boileau, Flaubert and Proust, as a few examples of the importance of food in French literature. I opened my briefcase and showed him what it contained. I believe that I did my share, that day, towards gaining acceptance in academia for applied foreign languages.

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[1] Jorden, Eleanor Harz, Beginning Japanese. Yale: Yale University Press, 1963.

II.

This paper is principally a description of the hotel course with some observations from the point of view of one who has otherwise taught more traditional language courses in elementary and intermediate French.

A. When the Hotel School established the course under the aegis of the Department of Modern Languages and Linguistics, my colleague, Nancy Gaenslen, and I had carte blanche as to what exactly we were going to teach and how we were going to teach it, but there were some givens: The course, first and foremost a language course, would be offered for students who already had the equivalent of 2 semesters of college French or a CPT score of 450; the class would be limited to 12, like any Cornell language class, and would meet 5 times a week; the emphasis would be on aural-oral French and very little class time would be spent on the formal teaching of grammar, a priority which betrays a rather idealistic view of language-learning in the classroom context.

Today it is difficult, even in the Ivy League, to convince students of the value of humanistic studies and of foreign languages in particular. Mastering a foreign language, except for a blessed few, has never been an easy task and the task is even harder when so many students have little knowledge of the structure of their own language and find any kind of rote learning distasteful. However, we all know what part motivation can play in learning, even -- as you'll see -- in learning grammar. Once again, we were not going to teach grammar but simply assign chapters and exercises in a review book (Coffman, French Grammar (Schaum's Outlines) McGraw-Hill), with the understanding that students could raise questions and ask for help at any time. My Hotel students feel strongly that 166 is their course and they view studying grammar on their own with benevolence. To make sure that they study and assimilate the lesson, I do give them short weekly quizzes. It always amuses and pleases me to see that they view those quizzes as a personal challenge and get angry at themselves if they miss an answer or two. Quite often, in fact, I find them begging for more grammar, something that usually language teachers can only phantasize about. As a case in point: I have had many students fresh out of high school who never seriously studied the subjunctive because they have the idea that "nobody talks subjunctive." My students quickly realize, however, that at a certain register of speech, when the hotel person addresses the important guest, for example, the subjunctive is just the thing. They want to use it to sound as sophisticated as possible. (For example, "Madame désire-t-elle que je fasse monter ses bagages?") As I tell them, when they first enter the course they may communicate in French at the level of "Me Tarzan, you Jane," and it is hoped that after the course, they can manipulate the equivalent of "I beg your pardon, may I introduce myself; my name is Tarzan, may I ask what's yours?" This kind of learning, in the context of things that are of direct interest to the students is practically ideal, and I am well situated to compare it with the traditional language courses since I teach one at the same time. Never in my career has the subjunctive gone over so big! I could cite as other examples the usually unpopular causative faire (to make) which is a natural when we get to culinary language (faire cuire, faire sauter, faire bouillir, etc.), or the highly diplomatic conditional and the use of inversion in the interrogative form, both commonly used in formal business communication. So much for grammar. As the French say, it goes as smoothly as a letter down the slot.

B. Our basic textbook is a solid little text published by Hachette: Dany and Laloy's Le Français de l'Hôtellerie et du Tourisme. Its organization is patterned after that of French hotel-school manuals; it takes us through different services of the hotel in turn: reception, rooms, billing, switchboard, room service, restaurant, etc., and it ends with a small section on business-letter writing. Each lesson includes appropriate dialogues and, depending on the general ability and fluency of the class, I ask that the dialogues be either memorized and recited or used as a base for improvisation, variation and role-playing. As I said before, the course meets five hours per week, which has made it difficult to schedule since most hotel students have a heavy course load and also hold jobs or conduct projects for the school. I tried to deal with this time-problem by having two class-meetings back to back: two hours of French! Something that started as makeshift turned out to be a great boon for the course. What immersion! The first couple of weeks each term the students come out somewhat dazed, but after that, these sessions almost always turn out to be our best. Part of this long period is structured, part of it is totally free. I encourage the students to report on something, to recount some experiences, to ask questions, to inform each other on some aspect of the hotel industry. We always run out of time.

C. Beyond this, I present a lot of ancillary material which I collect every time I go to France: menus, bills, advertisements, hotel information, timetables, touristic brochures. These I generally distribute in advance so that the students can prepare appropriate conversations. By the way, this also provides an excellent review of time, numbers and directions. I have also taken special sets of slides for the class. The first set, which are of French landscapes, follow a rather dry lesson on geography. Another set illustrates the different categories of hotel and restaurant and finally a third set is on food, wine and shopping. I like to top this set off with a cheese appreciation lesson--yes, they learn, there is a difference between Velveeta and aged goat cheese!

Their growing facility in the language makes it possible for them as for me to refer to two fine professional publications: *NEO* and *L'Hotellerie*[1], which are rich sources of up-to-date information and of relevant vocabulary. I hope also, now that the school has acquired the necessary equipment, to do more with French video-tapes. So far I have some clips from French television that I show. The students especially like the fast-paced advertisements. It's a good test of oral comprehension and a fascinating study in French facial expressions and body language.

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[1] NEO, Restauration. Hotellerie. Collectivites. 91, Faubourg Saint-Honore, 75008 Paris
L'Hotellerie (L'hebdo des C.H.R.) 79, Avenue des Champs, Elysees, 75381 Paris Cedex 08.

D. As for other types of activity, we are fortunate that the Cornell School of Hotel Administration runs a hotel right on campus, which serves as a management laboratory. When possible, I conduct the class on site. For example, the lesson on hotel accommodation is conducted in one of the guest rooms. One of the students plays receptionist, the others are hard-to-please customers asking pointed questions about everything in the room, about the room, about the hotel facilities and services. It works very well. Our class is scheduled at a time when the hotel main dining-room is full, but the banquet department will bring the dining-room to us -- that is, a fully set table, when we do the first lesson on the restaurant. At the end of the semester, then, we invade the kitchens and cook French dishes: as always, the students are not allowed to speak English and the vocabulary they acquire in a couple of hours of sauce-making, they retain very well.

This semester, we are organizing a visit to the brand-new Novotel New York -- part of a French chain -- at the invitation of the management. Short of crossing the Atlantic, the students could have no better experience of the French hotel industry.

Whenever possible I like to include guest speakers, like the student from a previous semester who then spent the summer working in a gourmet restaurant and foie gras factory in Périgord, or the one who worked in Paris for a SNCF hotel. This stimulates great interest and dramatizes the possibility of their actually having the same kind of experience.

I have discovered that although it is practically impossible to obtain a regular long-term French work permit, the Council on International

Educational Exchange (205 East 42nd Street, New York, NY 10017) will furnish students with a three-month work permit with which to seek a job in France. One of my students has written a number of hotels to obtain a summer job; if he succeeds, I hope to establish permanent lines of communication with a few hotels which would be willing to offer summer jobs. Another outlet, of course, is L'Institut de Management Hôtelier International, a joint program between the Cornell School of Hotel Administration and ESSEC (Ecole Supérieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales) at Cergy/Pontoise, near Paris, which gives students the opportunity to study in France. An exchange program is also being established with ESSEC which will permit our students to trade summer internships with French students.

E. Each lesson of our textbook includes a section which I consider very important, entitled "Savoir-Faire" ("know how"), an essential notion in the industry. "Savoir-faire" is only a step away from "savoir-vivre," the French way of doing things. I emphasize immediately that it is not necessarily a better way but a different way. It is sometimes difficult to convince my students that Europeans may place importance on little things that are meaningless to Americans. The goal is not to teach etiquette but to make students more aware of what are vaguely known as "cultural differences" in order to improve their ability at international communication. This can be delicate and I find that the tongue-in-cheek approach works best to get across certain quirks of the French, some of which I describe hyperbolically as "exquisite continental courtesy."

F. Part of the final exam gives the students a chance to try their French on a different person. Fifty percent of the exam grade (10% of the total course grade) is assigned by a disinterested party: the colleague who started the course with me, but no longer teaches it, spends twenty to thirty minutes with each student in an interview situation. She may ask them about their plans, their studies or their background, or invite them to play a role, and she rates their oral proficiency, loosely following the guidelines established by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.[1] The students appropriately view this as a rite of passage.

III.

The Hotel School has asked me to evaluate the course as it now exists and to make a proposal for another semester course in French. In view of the quality and the motivation of the students I have taught so far, I have suggested that "French for Hotellies" be offered at a more advanced intermediate level, which would allow us to meet the students' demand for more composition and reading of pertinent texts. The other part of the proposal is to have a general business language course, at a lower level, which would also be geared to students from Cornell's Samuel Johnson Graduate School of Management. We have found what looks like an excellent text for the purpose: French for Business and Finance by Georges Perla, published by D. C. Heath. At this very moment, the Spanish Department is also planning courses similar to the courses in French. These courses will be instituted in the Fall of 1986.

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[1] "ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines. A design for measuring and communicating foreign language proficiency."

The experiences of teaching "French for Hotellies" has been an extremely rewarding one, and for me, the question is no longer, "How Can we justify teaching applied languages at the university?" but rather, "How can we weave into our traditional language courses some of the strands that make applied language courses work so well?"

FRENCH FOR HEALTH AND SOCIAL PROFESSIONALS

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Rationale for Programs in Languages for Special Purposes

In 1980, the National Assembly on Foreign Language and International Studies, sponsored by the Association of American Colleges, made the following recommendations under the title: "Towards Education with a Global Perspective: AAC Assembly Recommendations":

> - Institutions should seek new and creative ways to foster language instruction. . .
>
> - Institutions should work to increase foreign language instruction in business and professional schools, including law, medicine, and journalism. Even mathematics and sciences would benefit from greater emphasis on foreign language study, which would give students and scholars access to research done in other countries.[1]

The recommendations of the National Assembly on Foreign Language and International Studies were prompted by the observations that the United States is becoming a multilingual society, that ties with other countries are increasing in number and complexity, and that Americans who rely on English being widely used all over the world often find themselves tongue-tied.

In the past ten or fifteen years, the linguistic impact of immigration movements from Southeast Asia, Mexico and Central American countries has been increasingly felt in the U.S. This impact has manifested itself in mounting visual evidence on our streets and our television programs, in our stores and our hospitals. Independence movements which claim the right to the official use of a language, as in Quebec, impose another official language where English used to be spoken.

Also, it is a fact that the world is becoming smaller and that it continues to shrink as satellites allow instant communication between distant countries and as air travel becomes easier and faster. Political and economic problems now involve not only the United States, Europe and the Soviet Union, but the Middle East, China and countries of the Third World as well. In our daily lives, we are influenced by foreign trends and customs, and our personal financial affairs fluctuate with the tides of global economy as the oil crises have proved. International trade involves one out of every eight

American manufacturing jobs, and over 35,000 American business persons live abroad at some point in their careers.

In this new pluralistic society open to foreign influences and vulnerable to international events, new needs have been progressively growing. On the one hand, consumers of goods and/or services require, and sometimes demand, that someone among those attending to their needs be able to communicate in their own language. A visitor from Quebec, for instance, who suddenly needs serious medical assistance in the U.S., has every right to expect that someone among the medical staff will have enough knowledge of French to ask the necessary questions and understand the answers. On the other hand, this need for knowledge of foreign languages, coupled with expertise in busines, industry, law enforcement or health care and human services, creates new job opportunities, and this is a welcome fact in a period of unemployment.

As specialists in foreign languages, it is unquestionably our responsibility to create programs in languages for special purposes. By so doing, we can answer the daily needs of a contemporary society with multiple ethnicities and languages, that is increasingly involved in exchanges with foreign countries. And we can also respond to our students' needs for linguistic proficiency in highly competitive career-related fields, thus giving them an edge over unilingual job seekers.

Documented Evidence of the Need for Professionals with Foreign Language Experience

The need for a knowledge of foreign languages outside of Academe, for the practical purposes of the multiple aspects of daily life was emphasized as far back as 1974. In Lucille Honig and Richard Brod's book, Foreign Languages and Careers, one finds this observation, too often unheeded for all its realism:

> A New York City taxi driver loses a fare because he doesn't know Spanish.--A corporate president waits in silence while an interpreter closes a deal with important Japanese investors.--A nurse in Maine can't diagnose a complaint because the patient is French Canadian.--All of these people could do their work better if they knew a foreign language, yet none of their jobs would seem to require a language. And what about journalists. . .librarians, social workers. . . anthropologists, clergymen, or chemists? According to the Occupational Outlook Handbook published by the U.S. Department of Labor, foreign languages are important for all these positions.[2]

In Academe, a number of students besides foreign language majors feel the need to pursue their study of languages in courses offering a content more applicable to their future careers. Professor Wilga M.

Rivers of Harvard University, in her analysis of a 75-item questionnaire administered to 1,821 students of twelve languages of the University of Illinois at Urbana found that students "would certainly like to see something more than pure literature courses on the one hand and pure grammar on the other. . . .They are interested in many things besides -such as-. . .reading in their own fields. . ."[3]

This interest will be even deeper for students who intend to go to graduate school where their knowledge of a language will facilitate their research. Honig and Brod, in the book mentioned before, indicate that "Specialists in medical research need reading knowledge of languages in which research reports are written. Russian is now the second most frequently used language, after English, in research materials in the biological sciences, followed by German and French. While many articles in foreign languages are eventually translated into English by a centralized service, this is often a slow process--taking as long as twelve months--and in some highly specialized fields, a delay of this kind can seriously retard research."[4]

Concerning health careers specifically, Honig and Brod also state that "Doctors, nurses, laboratory technicians, medical assistants, and hospital administrators are finding more and more that a second language is important--and in some cases essential--in carrying out their duties."[5] It follows that French is extremely valuable for students who plan to exercise their professions in geographical areas where French is widely used. Those areas include Louisiana, where over 291,000 people speak French, and the six states of New England. Maine alone, for example, has a high number of Francophones, as proven by sociological studies. On the percentage of the French-speaking population in Maine, Professor Madeleine Giguere's analysis of the 1980 U.S. Census reveals that 102,285 individuals speak French at home. And of course, there are pockets of French-speaking population in other states as well, such as California, where over 120,000 people speak French, New York with 181,408 people. Here in the state of Michigan, nearly 37,000 individuals speak French.[6] The French-speaking population in the U.S. is increasing to some degree because of the immigration of Haitians.

Honig and Brod's statement regarding health professionals has been corroborated by my own observations and my numerous conversations with nurses, physicians, dentists, and social workers. There is no doubt that knowledge of French can be a very important asset to anyone engaged in Health and Human Services, since it augments both the accuracy of communication and the human dimension of the professional-client relation.

Answering the Need: A French Textbook for Professionals in the Health Sciences and Human Services

My awareness of the need for French-speaking professionals in hospitals, community health centers and human services agencies in New England led me to the decision to teach a course entitled "French for the Health and Social Sciences." The discovery that no college textbook for that purpose existed on the market--whereas there are some in Spanish--led me to prepare one. In fact, the idea of the course and the text originated when I was told of patients who did not receive proper physical or mental medical care because their knowledge of English was inadequate and no one on the hospital staff spoke French.

I have been engaged in the past two and a half years in preparing an anthology entitled Le Francais des professions médicales et sociales. It is a reader for second semester intermediate or third year students of French and it is aimed specifically at the linguistic needs of current and future health care professionals and social workers. Its purpose is to stimulate their incentive to study French and to gain proficiency in it so that they may communicate effectively with their patients or clients.

My textbook consists of a collection of authentic contemporary articles and excerpts from professional and literary texts which deal with health and social issues and which raise philosophical, socio-economic and ethical questions. Each selection is preceded by a list of topical vocabulary and followed by exercises which lead to an active use of French by promoting class participation and discussion among students.

As you can see by the table of contents, the text has thirty-three chapters organized in four parts according to the stages of human life. Each part is divided into dossiers which focus on specific topics related to the stage of life in question. Thus, the first part, La Naissance, presents four dossiers: contraception, abortion, new birthing methods and genetic engineering.

The dossiers are self-sufficient units, each to be studied independently, and contain from one to four chapters, generally two. Since the chapters are also independent units, the book allows for flexible use. Instructors will be able to use the textbook over an entire school year, in combination with an intermediate grammar review, and assign each one of the thirty-three chapters. Or they may decide to use the book over one semester and choose only the selections which are appropriate for their students.

I would like to share with you the method and principles used in the preparation of this textbook. For the overall structure of the book, I chose the four stages of life, birth, childhood and adolescence, adulthood, and finally old age not only because this organization is comprehensive but also because it reflects the current emphasis in health studies curricula on a developmental perspective.

For the selection of the health and social issues presented as topics of discussion, I used information provided by the contemporary press, some advice from a faculty member at the School of Nursing of my university, plain common sense, and my belief that health and social professionals would feel a responsibility to the poor, the weak, and the elderly, as well as to the sick. That is why I included, besides obvious topics such as contraception, drug addiction and cancer, issues such as abuse of children and the impact of solitude on old people.

The selection of the texts was far more arduous. To locate them, I had to rely on my knowledge of French and Quebecer literatures--fiction and non-fiction--and of various articles recently published in France and Quebec. I also used data searches on specific topics and the card catalog of La Bibliothèque Nationale to a great extent. The selection stage itself demanded reading a wide range of material in order to select appropriate texts. I used five criteria in my selection: direct relevance to the topic, intrinsic interest and clarity of ideas (for undergraduate students), unity and completeness of thought development within a few pages, richness of topical vocabulary, and yet relative linguistic facility. I have also tried to find, within a given _dossier_, texts which complement each other, either by exploring opposing points of view, or by offering the theoretical and applied aspects of a topic or the complementary facets of a problem.

To expand students' vocabulary or to refresh their memory, some words and expressions are glossed in the margins. Marginal glosses are in French as often as possible. Students can also consult the French-English lexicon as well as the two appendices on dentistry and pharmaceutical terminologies.

As I said earlier, each chapter, in addition to the text, contains some pedagogical tools: a vocabulary list or _étude du vocabulaire topique_, vocabulary exercises or _pratique du vocabulaire_, comprehension questions or _questions sur le texte_, discussion topics or _échange d'opinions_ and various activity exercises.

Le _vocabulaire topique_ lists new vocabulary items pertinent to the chapter's theme and found in the reading selection. Therefore, it gives the core vocabulary necessary to understand the text and discuss the issues raised by the text. To those words have been added a few terms related linguistically or thematically and which students may find useful in their oral activities. I decided to present the vocabulary at the very beginning of the chapter so that students may become familiar with them before encountering them in the text, and also get learning reinforcement when they meet the words in context.

-- _La pratique du vocabulaire_: vocabulary exercises have been designed for two purposes: 1) to encourage students to develop familiarity with the words of the _vocabulaire topique_, that is to say with the words they will need to communicate with French-speaking patients. In each chapter, the terms given in the core vocabulary have been systematically and carefully integrated into the vocabulary exercises. 2) to foster in students a feeling for French by having them discover some of the morphological mechanisms of the language, such as the meanings and uses of various affixes; or by encouraging them to use their knowledge of English to discover the meanings of new French words in exercises on cognates, particularly medical and scientific cognates.

The fundamental purpose of all the vocabulary exercises is to help build in students a sense of self-confidence and self-reliance so that, as professionals, they can communicate in French effectively and independently of a teacher's guidance.

The vocabulary exercises appear after the reading so that the text itself may be used as a source of linguistic and semantic references when the students do the exercises. La pratique du vocabulaire represents the third phase of vocabulary learning: first, students study the words in the étude du vocabulaire topique; second, they see those words in context; and third, they are given the opportunity to use them in an active, personal manner.

-- Echange d'opinions: each of the three to five topics is closely linked to the theme of the reading selection and is designed to initiate discussion. Some questions ask students to express their personal opinions or feelings or experiences, while others require that they inform themselves by asking questions of their acquaintances and report their findings to the class. Other topics lead them into projecting themselves into a situation and imagining their own reactions and decisions. The topics always call upon students to express freely their personal experiences, values and points of view.

The two objectives of this type of communicative activity are to provide students with a context in which they can clarify their own values on ethical, social, medical or legal issues and, because of the controversial nature of the topics, to encourage students to express themselves enthusiastically and spontaneously in French.

-- Activité or jeu dramatique professionnel: here again, the topic of the activity relates directly to the social or medical issue raised by the reading. In this open-ended activity, students are invited to "put on the hat" of a health care professional -- physician, therapist, nurse, social worker -- and interact with patients, clients and/or other professionals, in role-playing, interviews, and group situations. This exercise provides students with the opportunity to speak in a framework that uses the material acquired in the chapter. It also encourages them to use French in an imaginative, active and free manner and in situations that mirror American reality.

Establishing Professional Acceptance

In conclusion, I would like to say a few words on the reception given to such a book and the reactions it elicits in various publics.

Commercial publishers, for example, although quick to recognize the quality and value of the book, have been reluctant to publish it for fear the market is too small, and they will not make a profit. However, the University Press of America has accepted it, knowing that my preparation of a camera-ready manuscript will lower publication costs.

The reactions of my colleagues have been mixed. Some of them prefer to limit themselves to critical literary texts in their research. Others, however, have shown interest, and some have been very helpful indeed. And I am most grateful to the administrators of my university who have given their support, both orally, and in terms of grants and released time.

But the most enthusiastic interest has come from the profession itself, whether from students, hospital staff, or social workers. It is with a passage from a letter written by a woman who is Director of of Surgical Nursing at Brigham and Women's Hospital in Boston that I would like to close this paper because it encourages all of us to continue to associate languages and the professions:

> The ability to communicate is crucial in any of the Health Sciences. Within the nursing profession, it is vital. The nurse who is able to converse with her patient, to discuss many of the important health issues that face all of us today is eminently more valuable than the nurse who cannot understand what the patient is asking her.
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> As a member of the nursing profession for the last thirty-five years, I have witnessed many situations where a knowledge of the patient's language by the nurse would have been a decided asset, whether the language was Spanish, French, Italian, or Polish.

Notes

1. "Towards Education with a Global Perspective: AAC Assembly Recommendations" in *Profession 81* (New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 1981), pp. 43-44.

2. Lucille J. Honig and Richard I. Brod, *Foreign Languages and Careers* (New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 1974), p. 5.

3. Wilga M. Rivers, "The Non-Major: Tailoring the Course to Fit the Person--Not the Image" in *Speaking in Many Tongues: Essays in Foreign-Language Teaching*, expanded 2nd ed. -1972; rpt. Rowley, Mass. Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1976-, pp. 181-182.

4. Honig and Brod, *op.cit*. pp. 20-21.

5. *Ibid*., p.20.

6. The figures were provided by Madeleine Giguere, Professor of Sociology at the University of Southern Maine. Madeleine Giguere is also the author of *Number and Percent of Persons with French Mother Tongue: States, Countries (parishes), Places of 10,000 or more, SMSA's of 250,000 or more, and Urban and Rural Residence, New England and Louisiana. Compiled and Computed from the 1970 Census of Population.* Collection Franco-American Files (University of Maine at Portland-Gorham).

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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PART VI

GERMAN FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

ESTABLISHING A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS COMPONENT IN BUSINESS FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES

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ESTABLISHING A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS COMPONENT IN BUSINESS FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES

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The development of sensitivity in business foreign language students regarding, on a larger scale, the cultural factors underlying the development of whole economic systems, and, on a smaller scale, individual business transactions, is not always given the attention it deserves. Focus upon this aspect of the students' education is particularly important here in the United States where our insular society so often produces students with very little global awareness. Students who are interested in business and related professions often come to a college or university ill prepared to enter careers in the international arena. Their deficit in the area of international studies is only rarely addressed by courses in business and professional departments. Traditionally, American students learn about foreign cultures in foreign language classrooms. Thus, if students are to be prepared to lead successful careers in international business, it becomes the task of the business foreign language instructor to introduce students to cultural factors affecting the business environment of the target language.

Although foreign language teachers are accustomed to introducing "culture and civilization" studies at varying levels of sophistication in first, second, and third year language classes, the task of introducing similar materials designed to heighten the cultural awareness of students who intend to work in the international business environment proves a more difficult task. Certainly one of the most important factors determining the difficulty of this task is the lack of appropriate textbooks developed specifically for the internationally naive American student. The textbooks which have been available to us have, for the most part, been produced in Germany for heterogeneous groups of foreign students and are intended to be used in classrooms in Germany. Not only do most of these foreign students have a higher level of international awareness than the average American student, but, should any insufficiency in their international education exist, business German teachers in Germany have the advantage of being surrounded by the target environment. If the student, for instance, has no knowledge of the German banking system, there is probably a bank just down the street where students may be taken for first-hand experience. Thus, these textbooks do not address themselves to the unique situation represented by the American classroom where a homogeneous student group with a particularly low level of international awareness is learning the language far from the countries in which it is spoken. This analysis is as true for outdated textbooks such as Bäumchen's Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache für Ausländer as it is for the far superior Fachsprache Wirtschaft text of the Carl Duisberg Gesellschaft. Such texts simply take too much background information for granted and are therefore useful only to a limited extent in the American classroom. On the purely thematic level, for instance, how does one begin to talk about Germany's central importance in the European Economic Community, when the average American student has only the most vague notion of what the EEC is? As far as cultural differences are concerned, these textbooks offer the business German instructor in the United States absolutely no teaching aids. The lack of published materials specifically designed for our classrooms on both the purely thematic and cultural level has led many of us to search for our own materials---cutting, pasting, and photocopying our way to a body of materials which we feel fits the peculiar needs of our students.

The search for the appropriate materials to study certain thematic units in the realm of business and economics, such as the banking system, labor-management relations, or the economic geography of the Federal Republic has always been difficult, but has nevertheless proven more fruitful than the search for a viable method to introduce cultural awareness into the business German classroom. After some reading in the appropriate bibliographies one eventually arms onesself with the only traditionally available published materials which even remotely touch upon the subject, that is: the Atlantik-Brücke publications _These Strange German Ways_, and _Meeting German Business_. The inevitable question after having perused these booklets is, "Was soll ich denn damit anfangen?" Even the in many respects commendable new addition to the business German textbook market, Doris Fulda Merrifield's _Deutsche Wirschaftssprache für Amerikaner_, does not address the problem of cultural awareness in the business environment in a systematic way. She mentions in her preface her indebtedness to one of the aforementioned booklets[1] and, in a subsection of her last chapter, includes a reading passage describing some German customs which could be of particular importance in an office setting. Once again, however, one is confronted with a listing of the "do's and don'ts" of business etiquette, i.e. that the American in a German office should not expect to be on immediate "du" terms with German co-workers, that the German handshake differs qualitatively and quantitatively from the American, and, most important of all, "Zu einer privaten Einladung kommt man mit Blumen oder Pralinen für die Hausfrau."[2] This catalog of customs which should not be overlooked by the visitor who wishes to make a good impression in Germany is followed by an exercise in which the student is to read a short narration concerning an American who is invited to a party. After reading the passage, the student is to comment upon what the American guest did wrong. A somewhat more successfully designed exercise, in my opinion, is the one which follows. Here the author has reprinted the text of an interview with a German business executive. In the interview the executive compares and contrasts his experiences in the German and American business environments. He introduces some of the fundamental cultural differences which create communication problems in cross-cultural business relations.[3] With this exercise and the questions which follow it, I feel, the author has approached the problem of establishing a cross-cultural analysis component in her textbook. Unfortunately, since this is the only chapter in the book which deals with cross-cultural communication problems in any depth, this new text lacks a systematic approach to the problem.

Considering the abominable lack of international awareness in our students, on the one hand, and the overwhelming importance of cultural understanding to the success of international business dealings on the other hand, I feel that it is essential that every thematic unit covered in the business German classroom reflect a highly sophisticated cross-cultural analysis component which goes beyond the Du/Sie-handshake syndrome. This cross-cultural analysis component should be considered an important part of the course syllabus and should be justified to the students very early in the course. It is important to begin by impressing upon the students the impact that the internalization of their own cultural values has upon their judgment of other peoples and cultures. This can be accomplished in a lively way with a discussion of stereotypes. With the aid of slides or overhead projections to present cartoon representations of the American stereotype of the "typical German," I ask my students to list what they feel most Americans would designate as the main characterisitics of "Germans." In a general classroom discussion, one will usually elicit something similar to the following list:

Germans:

1. love beer
2. wear Lederhosen and funny hats with feathers
3. export mainly cars, wine, and coo-coo clocks.
4. speak a gutteral language which is not as pretty or important as French
5. are clean, neat, and orderly
6. can be rigid and militaristic

Since many of these students (now in their third year of German study) have enough second-hand experience from their textbooks or first-hand experience from having travelled to Germany to know that the stereotype is extremely naive, the next step is to introduce them to a listing such as the following, taken from interviews with American business men who have travelled to

Germany on business.[4]

TWO AMERICAN VIEWS OF GERMANS

From those who know the language:	From those who do not know the language:
friendly	unfriendly
disciplined	undisciplined
self-contained	just like us
very well educated	no taste
perfectionists	efficient
difficult to make friendships with	standoffish
meticulous about appointments	
systematic	stubborn
neat and orderly	
well-organized	
procedures-oriented	dominated by regulations
fair to a fault	
good businessmen	
play hard ball	
tough competitors	
somewhat secretive	never tell you anything
protective of privacy	
eager to do right	afraid of making mistakes
quality-oriented	quality conscious
can be very creative	intellectually rigid

The list on the left, of course, reveals the somewhat deeper understanding of the German mentality which is attainable through control of the language. Yet, both lists still reveal that value judgments about German behavior are being made using standards which have been internalized from a different cultural background. This internalization is fully revealed when even those who know the language characterize the Germans as "tough competitors" who "know how to play hardball." At this point one must question not only the origin of stereotypes in general, but also the value judgments revealed in such characterizations by members of one culture concerning members of another culture whose cultural foundation differs from their own. All individuals sharing a particular culture possess a cultural grid through which information about the rules governing their interactions with each other is processed. When, for instance, Americans impose their set of values upon German behavior , they often misinterpret the significance of the behavior. Students must learn that simply learning the language is not sufficient to properly communicate in a foreign country; the culture itself is a means of communication which must be mastered if one wishes to be successful in social intercourse of any kind. As foreign language teachers we are, of course, fully aware that intimate knowledge of a foreign culture can only come through direct and prolonged contact with that culture. Within the classroom setting we can only hope to raise the students' level of consciousness to the point that they become more receptive to cultural cues.

Whereas stereotypes are relatively easy to deal with because they result from rigid notions which admit no individuality, the concept of culture is far more difficult to define. What is culture? A definition which is frequently used in "culture and civilization" courses would include the music, art, literature, and philosophic systems of a particular people. The definition used by those writing introductory and intermediate language texts, however, frequently goes beyond these more formal categories to include the level of familiar customs, such as store hours and shopping habits, from the everyday life of the average person. Both levels belong to the sphere of "culture" in the broadest sense, but how are the two to be integrated and what aspects of such an integrated view of culture are particularly important for the German business environment?

One theory which addresses the integration of the various levels of culture and, at the same time, has proven particularly well adapted to the business environment, is that proposed by anthropologist Edward T. Hall. According to Hall, each facet of culture has three levels, the formal, informal, and technical. Although we will look at these levels separately in order to better understand the mechanism of culture, it should be remembered that they are not independent of one another. All three levels are simultaneously present in differing degrees of domination in any facet of culture. The formal and informal levels are subsumed by many other anthropologists under the term "implicit," whereas the technical level is considered the "explicit" manifestation of culture. Each person internalizes the formal level of the culture very early in life through the precepts and admonitions of adult mentors. The formal level includes all of those behavior codes which are of a binary, that is "yes-no" character. There is no alternative behavior which is acceptable. For instance, the admonition that one does not steal belongs in the category of formal cultural learning.[5] The informal level is characterized by its somewhat less rigid nature and by the fact that the agent of transmission is a model used for imitation. On this level one simply learns through contact with peers. An excellent example would be the acquiring of knowledge about sexual behavior, which, to a large extent, is accumulated from experience, even in this age of sexual revolution.[6] The technical level is differentiated by the fact that it is almost exclusively transmitted in explicit terms from teacher to student, orally or in writing. The technical level is the farthest removed from emotional involvement; the informal level is suffused with somewhat more emotion and the formal level is highly emotionally charged.[7] Technical behavior is the most explicit and fully conscious behavior, with the informal existing on the periphery of awareness, and the formal existing just out of awareness, having become implicit.

Each level of cultural awareness presents its own particular set of problems for the outsider who wishes to become conversant with the culture. It is the technical level of a culture which is the easiest for an outsider to approach and learn. In addition, members of the culture are not disturbed by an outsider's misunderstanding or misinterpetation of facets of the culture at this level. The outsider is simply considered to be misinformed. Beyond this technical level, however, outsiders will meet with far greater difficulty, both in their attempt to understand the culture and in the reaction of insiders, should the outsiders' behavior be deemed inappropriate. As Hall points out, "mishandling the informal [level] can often lead to serious difficulties which are apt to become aggravated since the participants in an informal situation are not fully conscious of what is going on. They only know that under a certain set of unstated rules they can act in a certain way and depend upon other people to react appropriately. This informal expectancy is often ruptured when there is a conflict between two patterns..." in a cross-cultural situation.[8] The breach of informal codes of behavior on the part of the outsider is met with a far more emotional response by the insiders who may or may not forgive the breach, depending on their own level of cross-cultural awareness. It is the formal level, however, which presents the most formidable barrier to the outsider's desire to understand a foreign culture. The formal level is the very core of culture, "the base from which the rest of culture springs and around which it is built."[9] This cultural core is the most tenacious, the most resistant to change, and the most closely analogous to instinct. "Since the formal is seldom recognized as such," to quote Hall again, " the American abroad often has the impression that other people's formal systems are unnecessary, immoral, crazy, backward, or a remnant of some outworn value that America gave up some time ago."[10]

Thus, not only the outsiders' reactions to a certain behavior in the foreign culture, but also the insiders' reactions to breaches of the codes for this behavior on the part of the outsider, become more emotional and visceral as one passes from the technical, through the informal to the formal levels. This is a particularly important point which should be stressed when discussing the nature of culture in the business German classroom. For, the stronger the feeling on the part of the student that a particular behavior exhibited by the Germans is unnecessary or somehow backward, the higher is the possibility that the behavior is part of the formal core of German culture or that it represents a breach of the formal core of American culture. These students must learn to deal with all three levels of culture, but, if they are to be successful in international business careers, their most difficult and important task will be in overcoming their most emotional responses with regard to German behavior patterns. While it is not possible within the confines of any business German classroom to introduce every possible facet of German culture which impacts upon the business and economic environment of even one German-speaking country, I think that it is possible to raise the level of consiousness of these students to a degree which will make it possible for them to deal effectively with even the most complex cultural situations. The first step in that process of consciousness-raising can be dealt with by discussing stereotypes and their formation; the second step should involve a presentation of the nature and complexity of culture itself. The third and final step is to apply this knowledge to the environment of German business and economics, using carefully chosen examples of the manifestations of culture within the thematic units chosen by the instructor.

In presenting to the students the various manifestations of culture within the world of German business and economics, I have found it helpful to use a diagram[11] from Edward T. Hall's The Silent Language as a point of departure. (See Appendix) We note that this diagram not only presents the various facets of culture, but the interactions of these facets at all levels with one another, reflecting the complexity of the concept of culture in general. Around the outside, in the first, that is to say "technical" layer, we find the aspects of language, government, occupations and professions, dress and behavior of men and women, boundaries, time measurement, education, games, religious ceremonies, military defenses, health practices, and technology. These represent, therefore, the aspects of culture which will be the easiest for the instructor to present and for the student to understand. When we insert the German business and economic environment into these sectors, we indeed find, for the most part, the most frequently occurring thematic areas of business German textbooks. The vocabulary of business and technical German, the apparatus of the government which controls business and economics in Germany, the types and proliferation of various occupations and professions, the nature of the formal educational system, the health care system--all are recognizable aspects of the business German core curriculum. Very few textbooks venture into the realms of the informal and formal aspects of the cultural spectrum, however, into the sectors of the silent language (i.e. gesture and tone of voice), into deeply imbedded ideas of class hierarchy, of economic structure, of sexually determined hierarchies in the workplace, of space relations, of attitudes toward time and concepts of comfort.

Edward T. Hall has recently ventured into these areas, however, with a new booklet, entitled Hidden Differences: Studies in International Communication. How to communicate with the Germans. This addition to Hall's insightful works in the area of cross-cultural studies deals specifically with the deeper levels of cultural understanding within the German business and economic environment. There are a few occasions in this analysis of the aspects of German culture when Hall's conclusions seem to be based on superficial and highly subjective impressions of German language and behavior. For instance, in discussing German "communicative style," Hall remarks, "With the verb at the end of the sentence it takes a while for the Germans to get to the point...Keep in mind that in communicating to Germans you must repeat your main point at the end or your listener may miss it...The German language is much more literal than English...Each German word has a specific meaning and it is important to choose your words precisely.... The English and German languages are also different in the way they incorporate new technological words. Since the Germans tend toward understatement and are far more direct, they use simple terms like Fernsprecher ("far speaker") for telephone and Fernseher ("far see-er") for television."[12] If such statements had been made toward the beginning of the booklet and had I not known Hall's reputation as an anthropologist and respected it, I would have been discouraged in reading any further. He seems to have applied the value judgments of an outsider to the German setting, thereby falling into the very trap which in other books he has warned against. Hall is at his best when he stays within the more anthropologically oriented areas of his analysis; his background in Germanic linguistics appears insufficient, but his observations of German behavior in other areas are usually accurate. With certain reservations, therefore, I would like to recommend Hidden Differences as a helpful tool in the identification of the potential impact of certain German cultural patterns in the German business and economic system.

I would like to conclude my presentation with some practical suggestions for the incorporation of a cross-cultural component into business German thematic units. Before approaching this cross-cultural analysis with respect to the business environment, let us return to Hall's diagram representing the aspects of human activity. Since time does not permit that I deal with each aspect, I will choose only three for our present discussion.

Our first example comes within the area marked "Territoriality" in the general diagram. An excellent business German thematic area into which the concept of territoriality can be incorporated is that of "Führungstechniken" or Management systems and styles, which should include a presentation on the hierarchy of management within the German firm. In this unit one can present a flow chart, preferably one from a currently operational firm, showing the typical chain of command in traditional German management. One will see, if one does not already know from first-hand experience, that German business is typically highly compartmentalized and lines of authority are rigorously defined. As Hall explains, "Key people must be informed about all developments and any major decision must go to the top for approval. Usually there are two or three officials in a medium or large company whose approval is required for these decisions, and this naturally creates bottlenecks."[13] One must not bypass levels of authority (Instanzen) in the typical German chain of command, which is a line authority system. Americans often complain after having worked for several months in a German business that areas of authority are jealously guarded and that there is little if any of the informal communication between departments typical of the organization of medium sized American firms. Such informal contact may not even involve the higher level managers themselves and seems, to Americans, to facilitate the decision-making process because it eliminates the need to discuss the same problems concerning the project repeatedly in different departments. These two completely different ways of regarding the decision-making process and its relationship to the lines of authority within business have often been the source of cross-cultural misunderstanding between German and American businessmen. To this point our discussion has remained at the technical cultural level, that is, on the level of the description of specific boundaries within the aspect of territoriality. The information is explicitly available to us; we can see it, simply by reading the organizational flow chart. The Americans' reaction, however, to experiences within this system is likely to be that the Germans are "too rigid" and that their management system is "backward" and encumbered by too many trappings of authority. At this point, we begin to see the more emotional response characterisitic of a lack of attention to the more implicit core aspects.

From Hall's diagram we note that these formal and informal aspects within "Territoriality" define implicitly accepted values regarding space relations on both a personal and more general level. "Basic to any understanding of German behavior," Hall writes," is the role played by decentralization and compartmentalization, both prominent structural features of the culture. These elements can be seen at all levels in the society from the individual at home or in his office to the organizational level in the business hierarchy."[14] One major point of cultural differentiation between Germans and Americans involves attitudes toward and handling of space. The geographical crowding which Germans experience may be an explanation of their territoriality, Hall explains. But, whatever the deeper explanations may entail, for the German, space is far more sacred than for the American. The value of space to the German reveals itself in everyday life as the "cherished privacy" discussed in the booklet These Strange German Ways. Here one is presented with a few cartoon pictures representing the occurrence of "more closed doors," and "more fences between homes" which are characteristic of German life.[15] This information, by itself, is difficult to incorporate into a business German thematic unit. With the use of Hall's cultural aspects and levels, however, it is somewhat easier to follow the implications of the cultural core in the area of territoriality and apply them to the business environment. The fact that space is so sacred in the German culture leads to a compartmentalization which reveals itself in the hierarchical structure of most German firms.

The importance of privacy in German culture may also be carried over into a thematic unit dealing with the various forms of incorporation in the Federal Republic. This particular material lends itself, first of all, on the technical level to comparative/contrastive examination, because there are significant differences between the rules for incorporation between the United States and the Federal Republic. These rules are explicit and quite understandable from the presentation of tables. After the students have acquired an understanding of the surface differences between the two systems, I introduce the results of a survey of German business executives which appeared several years ago in Fortune magazine. In the interviews with these gentlemen it became apparent that they felt that there were many advantages to doing business in the United States in comparison to the Federal Republic. One of the disadvantages in their minds, however, lay in the far more strict publication requirements imposed upon American business by the government, particularly those requirements involving financial disclosure. In Germany, a greater percentage of companies are privately owned and closely held. Only the largest companies are subject to the kind of government regulation or public disclosure characteristic of the United States. The business letter itself can offer an additional method of illustrating to students how deeply imbedded the value of privacy is in the German cultural core with regard to financial disclosure in business. In connection with a unit of the format of the German business letter, I have sometimes supplied the students with addresses of German firms to whom they must write for information, including a Jahresbericht. Among these addresses I have occasionally planted a few smaller, privately owned firms; the emotional responses in some of the answers to the queries provide convincing evidence that one has indeed struck a nerve on the formal cultural level!

Another common cross-cultural communication problem which will confront Americans working in Germany, and for which one can prepare the students before they leave the classroom environment, lies within the area of "Bisexuality" on Hall's diagram. Since my business German classes are, on the average, more than half female, I feel that this is an extremely important area which merits my attention. On the technical level, one can easily explain, for instance, the dress and behavior codes with which the American will be confronted in the German business environment, but I know that I must prepare all of my students for the reception of women in the German business world on the formal and informal levels of German culture. As we see from the diagram, the formal core of the "Bisexuality" wedge includes deeply ingrained values concerning the place of men and women in the society. As Hall points out in Hidden Differences, "German women have less status than American women" in the business world. "Compared to the U.S., far fewer married women in Germany work outside the home and the percentage of German women in professions and business is far lower than in the United States. This is particularly true at the managerial level. There are a few women in positions of authority but they are the exception (only 16% of German executives are women)."[16] This situation can present a rude awakening for the American woman planning a career in international business who wishes to hone her skills overseas in positions of responsibility on a par with her male peers. It has been my experience that female interns whom I have placed with companies in Germany are frequently not taken as seriously as the males in their career objectives. In the first years of the internship program most of the German firms simply assumed that, if a female intern were assigned to them, she was to be given secretarial work. Her career goals were not taken seriously because the German male managers often assumed that these women were simply biding their time until a marriage which would take them out of the job market. I, with the help of some gifted and aggressive female students, have managed to overcome this deeply ingrained cultural bias at most of the firms who take part in our internship program, but these women will continue to fight for their place when they begin their career employment searches. I find that this cross-cultural communication problem can be well integrated into a unit dealing with the formalities of hiring and the interview process which preceeds it. Well-planned Rollenspielen can present the female student with a male "German" interviewer who will make her feel as though she were living in the pre-women's rights U.S. which may more closely resemble the average

German business executive's view of the role of women.

Leaving the wedge of "Bisexuality" in Hall's diagram, I would like to move next to the wedge entitled "Interaction." The technical level in this wedge is represented simply by language and, thus, this aspect of human activity can be represented in almost any area of the German business environment. A particularly rich area for the incorporation of the concept of "Interaction" in the context of cross-cultural communication is the realm of marketing and advertising. In my unit covering the latter, I first introduce all of the necessary vocabulary peculiar to German marketing and advertising; the students therefore have some experience with the technical level in this aspect of the culture as applied to an area of business and economics. As a final exercise for this unit, I hand out to the students, after having divided them into groups of 3 or 4, sets of both German and American magazine advertisements for certain popular products, such as automobiles, beer, and cigarettes, as well as services, such as insurance. Their task is to compare and contrast the sets of ads. Every group will report that the German ads are, for the most part, more factual and, to their tastes, overloaded with information. The emphasis in the German ads will be on quality, durability, and informative facts about the product. The American ads, on the other hand, will be characterized as far less wordy and more conscious of a superficial image which has been created for the product and which may have relatively little to do with the merits (or lack thereof) of the product itself. The most important ideas stressed in the American ads are "biggest," "greatest," or "newest." These differences in approach to magazine advertising reflect, however, the deeper formal level of

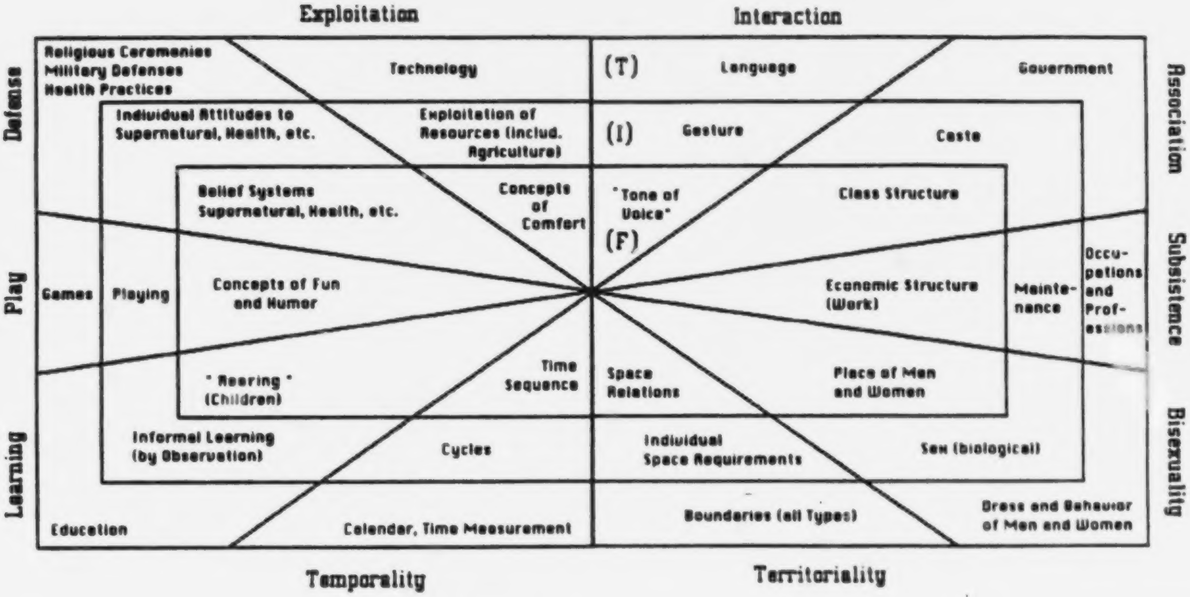
German culture within the "Interaction" wedge. In this instance, "Tone of voice" represents the German reaction to what they refer to as "American hype."

In Hidden Differences Hall quoted a German advertising executive as follows, "Americans make a big mistake because they're always talking about how this campaign is the biggest, greatest, or newest. But it's not the biggest, greatest or the newest. It's the same as last year's campaign, only talking about it as though it were entirely new. This makes a bad impression. The Germans get really tired of what you call 'hype.'" [17] This quotation is equally applicable if we change the word campaign to product--American products are always advertised as newer, or bigger, or better, when, in essence, the product has barely been changed, if at all. It is this "tone of voice," this "hype" in advertising which brings about a strong emotional response in the Germans and is responsible for failures of American products in the German market. In Germany products sell because of quality and price, not because of superficial "product image." McDonald's, for instance, spent millions trying to "do it their way" in Germany, trying to maintain their American "clean, wholesome, family" image at the "sign of the golden arches." They were only successful when they started serving beer.

One could continue to give examples of situations from the German business and economic environment which fit neatly into Hall's diagram and conveniently illustrate the technical, informal, and formal levels of culture as Hall has defined it. I hope, with my examples regarding management style and hierarchical structure, regulation of forms of incorporation, acceptance of women in the business environment, and practices in advertisement, to have touched upon some of the most important areas in the realm of cross-cultural business communication problems. In addition, I hope that my presentation of practical methods for including a cross-cultural component into business German thematic units has been of help to colleagues who may have had some difficulty to date in incorporating this important dimension into course syllabi. In closing, I would like to reiterate that culture is a multi-leveled system of communication in which everything that people do, produce, and possess has meaning. Culture controls behavior in many deep and persistent ways and we should ensure that our students do not misunderstand the basic notions underlying this definition of culture. They must not make the mistake of assuming that "culture" is restricted to relatively superficial manners, a trap into which they often fall because of the presentations of culture with which they are familiar from the introductory and intermediate German language texts to which they have been exposed. It is important to present to them cultural differences on the deeper, structural levels and show them the effect of those deeper levels on behavior. Most importantly of all, students should learn that our culture represents the grid through which we see and make judgments about the world around us. One often hears the pronouncement that "people are people," i.e., innately the same all over the world. Nothing could be further from the truth, and the closer the two cultures seem to be on the surface, as with the American and German, the easier it is to miss the significance of those deeper "hidden differences." It is an understanding of such hidden dimensions which brings about true cross-cultural communication.

APPENDIX

The Formal (F), Informal (I), and Technical (T) Aspects of Human Activity


Exploitation
Interaction
Defense
Play
Learning
Association
Subsistence
Bisexuality
Temporality
Territoriality
(T)
(I)
(F)
Religious Ceremonies
Military Defenses
Health Practices
Technology
Language
Government
Individual Attitudes to Supernatural, Health, etc.
Exploitation of Resources (includ. Agriculture)
Gesture
Caste
Belief Systems Supernatural, Health, etc.
Concepts of Comfort
"Tone of Voice"
Class Structure
Games
Playing
Concepts of Fun and Humor
Economic Structure (Work)
Mainte-nance
Occu-pations and Prof-essions
"Rearing" (Children)
Time Sequence
Space Relations
Place of Men and Women
Informal Learning (by Observation)
Cycles
Individual Space Requirements
Sex (biological)
Education
Calendar, Time Measurement
Boundaries (all Types)
Dress and Behavior of Men and Women

NOTES

[1] Doris Fulda Merrifield, Deutsche Wirtscahftssprache für Amerikaner (New York: John Wiley &Sons, 1985), p. v.

[2] This catalog of customs occurs on pp. 130-134 of the Merrifield text.

[3] Merrifield, pp. 139-143.

[4] Edward T. Hall, Hidden Differences: Studies in International Communication. How to Communicate with the Germans. (Hamburg: Gruner + Jahr, 1983), p. 92.

[5] Edward T. Hall, The Silent Language (Garden City: Anchor Books, 1973), pp. 68-69.

[6] Hall, Silent, pp. 69-70.

[7] Hall, Silent, p. 72.

[8] Hall, Silent, p. 82.

[9] Hall, Silent, p. 78.

[10] Hall, Silent, pp. 78-79.

[11] Hall, Silent, p. 95.

[12] Hall, Hidden, pp. 60-61.

[13] Hall, Hidden, p. 72.

[14] Hall, Hidden, p. 53.

15 These Strange German Ways, by Atlantik-Brücke, e.V. (Hamburg: Seehafen Verlag, 1980), p. 27.

16 Hall, Hidden, p. 75.

17 Hall, Hidden, p. 76.

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ESSENTIAL CULTURAL INFORMATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING IT IN GERMAN BUSINESS COURSES

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The audience at a convention like this is far from homogeneous. Some of you have been teaching business German for quite some time, some of you are newcomers to the field. This heterogeneity is a problem for the presenter since what is self-evident to one group is a revelation to the other. I have tried to strike a balance and hope that my paper, since it is primarily based on non-published sources, will have something to say to both groups.

> ". . . viewed from the outside, each culture is a 'hidden code' which makes it impossible to adequately comprehend one culture from the viewpoint of another without some instrument which functions as a 'code breaker' to facilitate translation. The most significant features of a culture are found in its non-verbal messages, which are usually taken for granted and transmitted unconsciously. These messages are highly situational in character, and they are seldom verbalized. Charged with emotion when norms are ignored, the meanings of messages are unique for each culture."[1]

Whether or not one agrees with the Halls' view that 90% of all communication is non-verbal,[2] it is certain that we need to teach our students in business German more than a specialized vocabulary. There seems to be general agreement on this point as the spate of books, articles and even bibliographies published in the last few years attests. In fact, the Halls' Hidden Differences. How to Communicate with the Germans makes a good supplementary text for an upper level course in business German. It lends itself to straightforward assignments and their testing as well as role plays or simulated situations. But these need to be introduced early in the semester because they take a great deal of practice until students feel comfortable modifying their behavior patterns to suit an unfamiliar situation and interact with a person from a different culture.

Since many elementary and intermediate German language textbooks now consciously treat culture as an item separate from and no longer implicit only in language[3], we are, in a way, fortunate in business language courses. Students are more aware and informed regarding the culture of the target language so that one does not need to begin with such elementary tasks as introductions or the "Danke, Bitte, Danke" confusion. Nevertheless it is a good review as well as a chastening experience for the students to start with contrastive cultural stereotypes, as are found, for example, in Kohls' _Survival Kit for Overseas Living_,[4] or with questions concerning the United States that Americans are likely to encounter overseas and which are available in the Infogram series published by Brigham Young University. One could even use the famous picture of the young/old woman[5] in order to sharpen the awareness of perceptual differences. Because our students no longer think Germans are really Americans who speak German, we can concentrate, in business German courses, on those aspects of German culture that are particularly germane and applicable to a business environment. Most of these aspects, as they pertain to corporate culture, are pretty well covered in the professional literature.

However, there are other, largely unpublished and untapped, sources that are particularly well suited for use in the classroom, and it is to these sources that I wish to address myself here. The ones I have chosen for this purpose are: 1) newsletters of the Industrie- und Handelskammer; 2) conversations with Americans who have worked or done business in Germany and Germans working temporarily in the US; and 3) slides to illustrate and sharpen the perception of cultural subjects.

In regard to the conversations on which I'll report, a disclaimer is in order. Take what is said as educated opinions, but opinions nevertheless.

Some of the regularly published I.H.K. newsletters contain articles on cultural matters, often in the form of dos and don'ts, for Germans planning to do business in the US. These articles are especially interesting because they point out what is seen as different about Americans. Simply by inverting the information, one can gain insights about German business practices and behavior.

It is from these newsletters which I was shown during an interview with the director of the export department[6] of one branch (I found that one can walk into any local branch of the I.H.K. in any German city and talk to the person in charge of the foreign trade department.) that I picked up some tidbits of which I'll mention a representative sample. American business people are reputed to have more substantive, open and uncomplicated relationships than their German counterparts and not to be so secretive. They show more tact, are more easy-going and open towards innovations. Thus their questions tend to be open, direct, targeted. Americans will always demand to see statistics and strike their German counterparts as particularly knowledgeable about a product and its prices. Of particular interest to Germans is the American desire to split the difference between offer and price except for consumer goods prices, in regard to which Americans supposedly are not knowledgeable at all and will accept immediately any figure mentioned.

What seems particularly puzzling to Germans is the value Americans put on discounts and contributions to advertising campaigns. Germans are cautioned over and over again not to assume that Americans will know anything about Germany or German industry and therefore need to be informed with tact. Furthermore, German business people are told that the American will have personal effects in her/his office, like pictures or mementos, and should be asked about them to simulate the small talk with which Americans begin and end business meetings. On the other hand, what tends to impress and/or overwhelm Americans when in Germany is that cultural interests cut across class lines and, what is even more surprising to Americans, across educational lines. What is not present in Germany is the all-consuming interest in sports which, in the US, cuts across class and educational lines. As would be expected, Germans are advised to inform themselves about American sports if they wish to establish a favorable atmosphere while doing business in here.

On the whole, the German perception seems to be that the US has a better business climate than Germany, the reason being the belief that Congress sees itself more as a partner of business than the _Bundestag_. The large number of civil servants in that body is supposedly the cause.

My final example from I.H.K. newsletter sources is the information that the two most important status symbols in the US are one's possessions, such as house and automobile, and the university one attended.

Thus it is evident that a wealth of cultural information about Germany is available in German cultural information about the US. I have found that students, when given these tidbits enjoy greatly making inferences about German business culture--once they get over wanting to dispute the German perceptions about the US.

From I.H.K. newsletters, in-house publications of major firms, as well as from the business sections of leading German newspapers, one can also glean cultural information imbedded in corporate vocabulary vital for our students. I'll give only four examples: the trend towards democratization in the German corporate world, an attempt to gloss over social and rank distinctions, is discernible in terms like *Mitarbeiter* to refer to anyone from the *Putzfrau*, officially upgraded to *Raumpflegerin*, to the Executive Officer. Even more pregnant is the term *im Hause*, meaning the company one works for, because it implies a family, mutual interest, and strong identification. Or think of the concept *Geschäftsfreund*, a word rich in cultural connotations and unknown in the US where one has friends with whom one does business. And lastly, "Man arbeitet bei, nicht für eine Firma." My four examples are meant to be representative of the potential inherent in non-technical vocabulary used in the German business world, a potential that lends itself very well to teaching.

The second source for corporate cultural information and one not found in publications is in our communities right here. The Detroit area might have an advantage over some others in the US in that it is highly industrial and has a large number of international companies. There are people in our communities who have worked and/or done business in Germany as well as Germans working here. These business people are most helpful once they understand what it is you are after. I taped two dinner conversations, one with American business people and one with Germans temporarily working here. They constitute a largely untapped source rich in information. There was a great deal of unanimity in opinions about cultural essentials that our students should know, with the Germans going into greater detail and being more specific. Not surprisingly, the perceptions of both Germans and Americans we talked to not only converge, they dovetail with the theoretical underpinnings by Hall, Troyanovich[8] and others. Thus observation based on personal experience and cross-cultural theory support each other, a reassuring state of affairs. What follows are the salient points of these conversations.

A joke about American career paths making the rounds in German companies goes: "ein Vierteljahr Kredituren, ein Vierteljahr Debituren, so wird man Finanzchef." This joke encapsulates striking differences in careers in the two corporate cultures, differences our students must understand. There is, for one, the difference in attitude both of the employe towards the employer, and vice-versa. There is a strong sense of loyalty towards the German company and its tradition, a loyalty that leads the company, for its part, to feel an obligation to its staff. While in the US changing the company one works for is a means of career advancement, such changes, by and large, are not seen favorably in Germany. Instead, career-minded employes consolidate their positions within a firm. The reputation of the firm one works for is in itself a status symbol.

Since the courtesy code in Germany in general is determined by seniority in both senses of the word, we need to practice certain behavior patterns with our students. They need to understand that Germans feel uncomfortable when rushed into friendships; they need to keep their distance and wait for the German to make the first move. This behavior is difficult to learn, particularly for those who spent any time at a German university or as tourists in Germany because they have experienced the informality in form of address, clothing and manners among young Germans. In this regard, the position of secretaries in Germany, in particular, needs stressing. They are less friendly and more condescending than their US counterparts, in part because they work more independently than American secretaries. For instance they are used to taking care of business correspondence on their own and signing it. Our students must learn not to see the use of first names as a sign of friendliness but as a lack of respect.

The American also has to learn that punctuality and planning occupy a special place in the work world as well as the private one. Spontaneity is not highly prized in either. Punctuality and planning in advance give evidence of courtesy and orderliness, both highly valued.

It has been my experience in teaching business

German that students are vocally anti-union. It seems to be their ambition to "rise" above what they perceive of as clearly blue collar status. Since this is, in part, an emotional issue, it is extremely difficult to confront them with a differing German attitude. There are several aspects to German unions an American interested in German business must know about in order to avoid blunders. For one, parts of the German labor union movement spring from a Christian tradition; i.e., not all can be associated with the Social Democrats. Labor unions are, therefore, perceived less as adversaries and don´t arouse the kind of antipathy in the business community they do here. For another, every employe up to the level of department head (Abteilungsleiter) belongs to a union, whatever its name, including engineers and management people. This explains why German business people have to leave the office at a certain time or be paid overtime after prior application to the Betriebsrat. As if this were not a confusing and emotionally charged enough situation for our students, one needs to explain the differing definitions of unionism in the two cultures. From the American point of view, German unions are company unions since they define their raison d´être not in opposition to, but rather in cooperation with, the companies. From the German point of view, on the other hand, US unions don't even deserve that name because they do not, by and large, concern themselves with environmental or societal matters. Of course, anyone who knows anything about the US labor movement knows that this perception is only partly correct. Nevertheless, the American in a German business setting is well advised to refrain from railing against unions--unless the German starts it.

The concept most difficult to impart by far concerns the difference in level of decision making between the two cultures, and yet this is the issue that presents the greatest pitfalls. In the US, that level is relatively low, while in Germany, in most firms, no real decisions are made below that of an Abteilungsleiter. I.e., most engineers and management people do what can be called staff work (Zuarbeit) which involves little or no risk equivalent to that of their US counterparts. As a consequence, there is an absence of initiative and flexibility so highly valued here. In amazing unanimity my German contacts attributed this absence of initiative and flexibility to lack of opportunity to exercise these talents and to the motto "No need to hustle." High fringe benefits and great job security are seen as perpetuating this behavior on the job; in fact, the aggressiveness with which Americans pursue their job and career goals evokes dislike, lack of understanding and disdain. The same holds in regard to displays of self-confidence. In part these differing behavior patterns were attributed to what was perceived to be the on-the-job-training and learning by Americans and the training and learning done in advance by Germans.

By way of example, my German guests commented on the high drop-out rate among the Americans in their respective firms who had signed up for language classes. They attributed this phenomenon to the unreasonably high level of expectation, the inability to settle for slow progress, and the absence of perseverance (Sitzfleisch) among the Americans. Short-term thinking and short-term goals dominate the American business scene and thus produce behaviors that are, at best, irritating to Germans. A further, obvious example are the quarterly dividends in this country vs. the annual dividends in Germany. Obviously, one cannot and should not attempt to turn our students into Germans; however, they need to be cautioned and their perceptions sharpened so that they can function with a minimum of friction.

One way to sharpen perceptions and my third source for imparting cultural information is through the use of slides. It has been my experience that simply showing slides and letting students tell me what they see, i.e., freely associate, does not sensitize them to observing well. It seems to me that, ultimately, our students' ability to function and succeed when they work with or for Germans depends on their powers of observation and the resultant adaptability. It is like eating unknown food for the first time and watching the experienced eater for clues. Therefore, I choose my slides to illustrate a point, i.e., I state what the slide demonstrates or reveals. I then incorporate previously unseen slides in the testing process, though at the beginning only those that cover the same ground, but slowly introducing slides that require the students to find cultural clues not previously mentioned by me.

I have chosen some examples of slides to show you how they can be used. Some I made myself and some are copies from the collection of Professor James Lamse of Calvin College, Michigan.

To quote from the Halls once more:

> Many people dismiss culture as merely manners or unimportant, superficial differences. To hold this view can be a vital mistake because culture is far from superficial . . . [culture] programs the actions and responses of people and it must be learned before you can make the system work."[9]

A. On the subject of privacy:

#1 Afternoon coffee in the back yard, which is totally shielded from view by neighbors or passersby.

#2 A woman ironing on her terrace.
There are three pieces of information in this picture that I use: the cut of the curtains to accommodate the plants on the windowsill; the use of the terrace as an extension of the house, i.e., ironing done outside, which permits an excursion into the subject of the climate and/or the German love of fresh air.

B. On the subject of the close proximity of the old and the new:

#1 A regulation trashcan with the required label "Keine heisse Asche einfüllen."
I have fun with that slide because the identical trashcans are required in all of Germany. This slide also lends itself to a review of the various imperatives and the caution never to use this particular one in ordinary discourse.

#2 Here is the regulation trashcan in its regulation casing.

#3 Milk cans on a farm.

A scene like this has become rare in Germany.

#4 A street scene typical of small or medium sized towns. Half-timbered house, the flower boxes, the cars, the wrought-iron sign on the right identifying the restaurant. But most important is the fact that the ground floors are shops with living quarters above. I explain the importance of this arrangement for keeping towns alive and relatively crime free.

#5 The famous Steigstraße in Meersburg. I use this slide for testing.

C. On the subject of the Post Office:

#1 A directory to the windows at the post office. This slide shows the three functions of the Bundespost, the mail system, the telephone system, the post office as bank, the latter two differing from the function of the US postal service.

#2 The stamp machines--yellow is the German postal system's color.

#3 A row of parked post office automobiles. I use this slide for testing purposes. Students should know that it can't be coincidence that six yellow cars are parked next to each other.

D. The following slides are ads. They are a marvellous source of cultural information, specifically because, in contrast to the US where most advertising is done on TV, in Germany most ads appear in the print media which include posters.

#1 The ad for Camel cigarettes is obviously an American import while

#2 the ad for Peer cigarettes, with its snob appeal, is obviously German in origin.

#3 Schöfferhofer Weizen.
Erfrischend herzhaft. This beer ad, in contrast, with its picturesque, touristy setting appeals to a different set of emotions. One can do wonderful things with the word "herzhaft," the size of the beer steins and the checkered tablecloths.

#4 An ice cream sundae.
McDonald's, which is beginning to rival Coca Cola as the world-wide symbol of the US, not only introduced an heretofore unknown way of embellishing ice cream in Germany, the ad is based on a pun. I let the students guess what

the pun "eisgeliebt" is.

#5 This Hirschquelle ad, a still life, caters to the ever growing demand for natural products. Please note that in this ad "Tutgut" precedes "Schmeckt gut." Also, showing this slide offers the opportunity of talking about the role of mineral water in the German diet and its place on menues in German restaurants.

#6 A chalk board menu in a small restaurant. This slide is particularly rich in information. For one, of the six items listed, only three are German. Of greater interest, however, is the regulation that chemical preservatives added to foods must be listed on restaurant menues though not on foods sold in stores.

#7 A window display of an Apotheke. Here we can talk about the difference between Apotheke and Drogerie and have again the emphasis on a natural product--though the brand name is obviously designed to appeal to the younger set.

#8 A humorous book store window display of classical works with the slogan "Unsere Klassiker sind keine Gipsköpfe."

It is a campaign, a marvellous pun. Students tend to derive comfort from the idea that not all Germans are brainy types who run around reading Faust in their spare time. The older among you will recognize the pun associated with jokes about Klein-Erna, Tünnes und Scheel, and Hitler.

#9 The storefront window of a bank, discreetly curtained.

A sign shows a park bench and carries the text: WIR KENNEN "DIE BANK" DIE AUCH IHREN KREDIT-WUNSCH ERFÜLLT. An ad with a pun. The real reason for showing this slide, however, is the opportunity it affords to talk about the subject of benches in the cities, most often paid for by local banks.

#10 A moving streetcar.

A picture of a Strassenbahn is nothing unfamiliar to our students. Neither is the concept of public conveyances carrying advertising.

#11 The inside of a streetcar.

Prominently displayed is a billboard with the following art: Die Bibel, Gottes Wort, sagt: Wenn ein Ausländer bei euch wohnt, in eurem

Land: den sollst du lieben wie dich selbst. (3. Mose 19. 33 u. 34) This ad, paid for by the Christliche Alliance, is not an ordinary one. The exhortation to love, not your neighbor, but a foreigner, as yourself, is of particular interest because it points to the problem of Gastarbeiter. This is one of my test slides; I want the students to tell me what cultural deductions they can make from such an ad displayed in such a setting.

E. The next two slides show the interior of a bank.

#1 A teller at a window.

Note the marble top signaling the soundness of the bank, and the fact that the teller is a middle-aged male. The concept of Bankbeamter needs to be introduced. It is an appellation used regardless of whether the employe is, in fact, a Beamter or an Angestellter.

#2 The daily list of foreign currency exchange rates is displayed in most banks, even in small town banks.

Therefore, it must be of interest to the average German and thus bespeaks the German enthusiasm for foreign travel. Many Germans follow the exchange rate of the Mark with something akin to national pride and patriotism.

F. The next two slides speak to the seriousness with which Germans approach their vacation. This is the place to speak about mandated vacation time and the concept of Betriebsferien.

#1 A Preistafel at the door of a restaurant. It carries the message: "Betriebsferien: Vom 19.7-19.8." This restaurant, one of the best and most expensive in Regensburg, is closed for a whole month. Note the dates, the height of the tourist season. In 1982, when this slide was made, it was the time of summer vacation for the Bavarian schools. This notice lends itself to an excursion into German social legislation and mandated and regulated store hours. One could even mention the cabinet post of Familienminister.

#2 A book store window display. Written diagonally across the window is "Urlaub 82. Man sieht nur, was man weiß." Again, a sight unfamiliar in the US, where we find vacation-type reading listed in publications like Newsweek or the Sunday supplement of our local papers, perhaps. The collection here displayed in a bookstore, however, includes maps, picture books and guides to tourist attractions; it does not include so-called light reading, the kind you curl up with. This slide, thus, illuminates, in particular, two points: the serious attitude Germans have towards their vacation and the rather dubious and intimidating slogan which, if it were completely true, would render one's powers of observation and perception ineffective and irrelevant. However, since it does contain a kernel of truth, it, of course, underlines our efforts to impart cultural information. Incidentally, comparing vacation book store displays in Germany from season to vacation seasons reveals a marvellous road map (pun intended) of the ever changing "in" places. What is largely reserved for and specific of the jet set in this country is characteristic of a sizeable segment of the German population.

The last three slides show traffic signs. I include them here because their use may serve the purpose of pointing out similarities rather than differences. One could choose to base the use of slides on that principle just as well as on that of differences. The first two are self-evident (Kinderübergang" and "Nur für Fussgänger), but the last is of greater interest because it tells you that you are leaving a village, town or city which means that the speed limit changes. It also tells you the distance to the next place, very helpful information.

As you can see from the kind of slides I chose, and one could, of course, choose a totally different set or even limit oneself to more business oriented slides, I have tried to combine two functions: on the one hand, I use them to impart information or to illustrate cultural information covered elsewhere in the course and by different means. On the other hand, I make the viewing of slides an active rather than only a passive activity for the students. It becomes active because students will take seriously anything included in the testing process. The hope is, of course, that this will alter their perceptions and sharpen their powers of observation and deduction, both of which are essential skills for them if they want to operate successfully in a German company here or abroad or in situations where they have to deal with Germans.

Notes

[1] Edward T. Hall and Mildred Reed Hall, Hidden Differences. Studies in International Communication. How to Communicate with the Germans (Hamburg: Stern Magazine, 1983), p.9.

[2] Ibid., p.15.

[3] For a review and summary of this trend, see Mary Beechy Pfeiffer, "Annäherungen an das Alltagsleben: Sachbezogene Dias als Mittel landeskundlichen Lernens," Unterrichtspraxis, 17, No.1 (1984), pp.10-27.

[4] Robert L. Kohls, Survival Kit for Overseas Living (Chicago: Intercultural Press, 1979). See also Hall and Hall, pp.92-93.

[5] Ibid., p.57.

[6] Herr Emde, Industrie- und Handelskammer, Ständeplatz 17, 3500 Kassel.

[7] Edward T. Hall, The Silent Language (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1959). See also his Hidden Dimensions (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1966).

[8] John Troyanovich, "Methodische Rundschau. American Meets German. - Culture Shock in the Classroom," Unterrichtspraxis, V., No.2 (1972), pp.67-79.

[9] Hall and Hall, Hidden Differences, p.14.

CULTURAL SIMULATION:
ADAPTATION OF FILMS FOR BUSINESS GERMAN

By

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CULTURAL SIMULATION: ADAPTATION OF FILMS FOR BUSINESS GERMAN

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Last year in early March a student came to class - Business German I - and said almost accusingly: "You didn't tell me that Germany was so grey and cold this time of the year!" I swallowed the answer, "you should have asked me" and instead inquired: "What did you expect?" The young man, one of the very bright and aware members of USC's Entrepreneur program, had left me a note saying he had to accompany someone on a business trip to Baden-Wurttemberg. Great! We had just talked about this region in detail, including the weather. This student had demonstrated on a quiz that he had absorbed the information, could answer questions and also report on the subject.

Why then did he not expect "grey" and "cold"?

His answer to my question surprised me: "When I took German in high school we saw all those movies . . ."
Perhaps the reader remembers some of those documentaries = Kulturfilme, which were shown to give language learning relevance, whet the appetite for foreign travel and keep language students interested in grammar and vocabulary.
During the class period we reviewed the information on climate and geography in light of these personalized findings. Other students contributed to the discussion by recollecting feature films and stories about visits to Germany when it was cold and

rainy. This paper is not about the weather of course, but all the films I have ever seen, especially documentaries, show Germany with almost mediterranean skies. The only rainy day I remember distinctly in such a film showed visitors to East Berlin with umbrellas. There it was raining.

This episode with the student puzzled me. It had to do with memory which had somehow influenced his expectations. Literary criticism has a term "horizon of expectations", the Erwartungshorizont. This wasn't literature, this fitted more into linguistics. Modern linguistics has an approach -- Script Theory, created less than 10 years ago. It can be included under Pragmatics, a science concerned with the influence of extra-linguistic factors in the production and interpretation of meaning in verbal communication. It investigates how context is used by speakers to assign meaning to what is said, or, in other words, analyze the context and use the results for their interaction.[1] Script Theory is an attempt to address this issue.

Script Theory apparently developed as a "byproduct" of memory studies for computers where the question was: "How much text is required to retrieve something from computer memory?" It posits a mental frame or script, or perhaps a story board which is the knowledge base that gives meaning to language. An occurrence is interpretated in light of previous experience leading to assumptions to what one can expect, what will happen, and how it will happen.

Roger C.Schank and Robert P. Abelson of Yale University use the term "knowledge structures". Their 1977 book Scripts, Plans, Goals and Understanding"[2] is a fascinating analysis of these "knowledge structures", that provide a person with assumptions and expectations regarding situations which that person can use when placed in similar situations. Surroundings or events seem very familiar. They believe that human memory is organized around personal experiences or episodes rather than around semantic categories[3], implying that humans do not remember in semantically related "lists" but rather in terms of episodes or events in their life.

Script Theory also suggests that a specific event is remembered as it relates to other events which occur simultaneously. The terminus used here is "episodic memory". The theory of episodic memory is the underlying principle of the theory of scripts.

If this is the case, then the mention of one part of this script should recall other parts. Those events which are similar should therefore be stored as generalized episodes with a common denominator which is the script. Similar scripts should be produced as one's experience increases. Those could result in the development of elaborate scripts with sub-branches.
Following this line of reasoning we would expect to find notions on every script of what verbal and non-verbal behavior occurs in slightly varying situations such as visiting foreign countries,

for instance. American students, while visiting Western European countries perhaps, see the same jeans, the same McDonald's hamburger on someone's plate might expect similar responses as at home, yet the people encountered can react differently because they come from different cultures with different preferences, in other words, with different scripts.

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Likewise, a Swiss or Austrian in a three-piece suit fresh from Europe may look like someone from West-Germany, especially if his accent is distinctly German, but there is still the different cultural background which needs to be considered. The American businessman may need modifications in his script that will include data on all German speaking countries.

The student mentioned earlier seemed to have developed a partial script regarding Germany from visual images contained in the films he had seen. He must have received textual information during his years studying the language just as he absorbed facts during the first six weeks of Business German I. Was the visual and the semantic input perhaps stored side by side without integration? If so, then any learned facts about the German culture might not be considered or applied while surrounded by that culture. This issue needs to be addressed.

I believe a major concern of Business German I should be to bring the "other" culture closer to the students. To help the students develop cultural sensitivity, "cultural literacy", is my main interest, since many of them will be involved in global trade.

The target groups of most business language classes are two-fold: There are future managers, who will have bi-lingual secretaries and international lawyers; Varner/Whitcomb in their article, " Interdisciplinary Co-operation and the Illinois State Model" describe a program designed for this group where "very few of the students . . . will actually spend their lives writing business letters to Germany."[4] This program features a wide range of topics on culture, personal habits and preferences, historical and political background, besides straight business information.

The other group consists of future owners or employees of small firms, cottage industries perhaps, or of distributors of articles produced by such firms. They will conduct their own correspondence, and will need emphasis on vocabulary development and letter writing. Many business language programs are directed towards acquiring these skills. But even they may not need those skills. A paper read by Dr.Grandin[5] demonstrated business letter writing with the help of a computer.

Both groups, however, share the need to develop cultural sensitivity. Edward T. Hall believes there "is no way to teach culture the same way that language is taught."[6] and "that the real job is not to understand foreign culture but to understand our own."[7] This would suggest the need to demonstrate the differences in the foreign culture by heightening awareness of one's own culture. The question occurred to me: What would the

Peace corps tell their volunteers; what would the CIA tell their personnel to heighten awareness?

What do most people from German speaking nations look like? Students or business men look very much like their counterparts in the U.S. But here, looks can be deceiving, and more important, costly if one uses a distinctly American approach to doing business.[8] Teaching the language of the target country should go far beyond proper grammar and vocabulary usage, because doing business in or with a foreign country depends on communication, and communication is more than using proper terminology.
What do German speaking countries look like? Similar to many places in the U.S., even the automobiles are a mixture of American, Japanese and European styles.

With respect to Business German, what should the expectations be for such countries as Austria, the Federal Republic, the German Democratic Republic and Switzerland all sharing the same written language? Their respective cultures are what makes them unique.

How can films shown in a business language class heighten the awareness of similarities and differences between the American and European scene? They can provide portions of a script. The partial but more realistic script the American student needs to develop should contain visual images which trigger certain responses. The impressions gleaned from a film can complement, supplement or even supplant book-learning.

Why use films rather than slides?

It is a personal preference. I find slides static and films dynamic. I feel films simulate a living environment.

A student or business man arriving in another country will be surrounded by moving objects - people, cars, trains -. Possible details of such first encounters will add to an existing script. They can be a point of departure, perhaps even the enactment of a script.

The Types of Films: Available are full-lenth features and documentaries.

Full-length features have limited suitability. They are too long, too narrowly defined for a first overview. The environment is usually selected to suit the story line.

In documentaries, especially those designed for prospective travelers, one can expect an overview of many regions. Ideally it should happen that one can later, when visiting, recognize places one has seen on film. Some documentaries focus on famous people (scientists, poets, artists), buildings (Cologne Cathedral); or period (Baroque). Others feature technical processes: e.g. all about plastics; car production; North Sea oil; etc.

Among the travelogs one can distinguish between "landscape" and "people" themes. Landscape-oriented are those showing the Rhine river, for instance, or Rothenburg. They are of great advantage because they usually cover a lot of ground and can give a good overview of an area/region; can identify a region as to usage e.g. agricultural or industrial. Topics connected with means of transportation are suitable after viewing such films. The discussion can also start with observations on topography e.g. roads, rivers, seasonal characteristics with the accompanying question: where would one expect to find industry? tourism? agriculture?

The other group of documentaries focusing on people will show cities and/or landscapes as seen through the eyes of tourists, who might appear as part of the film. Often included are people of different age groups, genders, professions, students, workers, children and their respective places of action.
Most films are of mixed categories with emphasis on either landscape or people.

Where to get such films: The script of USC's German Department had to be changed recently when the source of films shifted from the Consulate in Los Angeles to a central office in Florida with regional distribution centers. The films are provided free of charge. Catalogs are sent which contain short notations about the content of the films. Previewing is necessary since there is no reference to suitability for Business German. Other sources are public and college/university libraries.

When I first introduced films, lack of time and late arrivals did not always allow for previewing. But I found it was possible to see all films through the eyes of a business man. The importance for an instructor, of course, is to insist that the specific film was selected with business topics in mind.

In the beginning the discussions were fascinating but altogether hit and miss until I had the students focus on one item at a time. Since students had partial scripts due to their language studies, I attempted a modification. In other words, call up the existing script and modify it by programming it with an additional set of expectations.

As homework I assigned one-page critiques in German which focused on one business aspect. The films were shown in complementary pairs, a short technically oriented filmstrip along with a slightly longer travelog. Most were 10-15 minutes long, none longer than 30 minutes.

Many students had seen tourist films before, but with a business point of view in mind they saw even those films and the landscapes shown in a new light. They learned, for instance, to appreciate tourism as a booming industry.

I would like to cite three examples to illustrate the topic:

My most challenging experience was with a film entitled The Metamorphosis of a Street in Bremen, described in the catalog as a street of craftsmen and artists. It turned out to be an expose on modern art. The street was completely levelled in WW II, and then rebuilt. This lead to an interesting discussion about investments, small shops, probably with single proprietorship, and the importance of "Strassencafes" among the shops and art galleries. The mention of "Strassencafe" can lend itself for discussions about the Germans' use of space; that it is culturally acceptable to sit down at a partially occupied table; how close to each other people stand while talking, and that people shake hands as greeting.[9]

The film Americans in Berlin offered important information for prospective entrepreneurs. Besides giving general impressions of the city, including the Wall and East-Berlin, the film stressed that the military presence of Americans in Berlin not only safeguarded the population but also American investments. The latter point was brought out through interviews with local shopkeepers. As a result of this film, one of the students actually wrote to the Chamber of Commerce in Berlin for information, on how to set up a franchise for the distribution of flower bouquets decorated with balloons. His brother has a trademark on this.

The series Technology Today is in English and offers glimpses of technical developments in Germany. Films in this series also broadened the students' general knowledge of industry and production, an important aspect, since most students have never been near a factory, for instance.

It is necessary to prepare the students for the visual application through a set of questions which will help to develop a personal reference point by giving them a kind of pre-viewing questionaire.

First step: Identify and isolate available knowledge - call up the script. If a script is already present it needs to be checked for accuracy and may be modified by adding or subtracting information. Perhaps as homework or at the beginning of class each student collects points concerning geographical environment, people, and businesses of his/her respective home town or college town. If a student came from a small town into a large city or vice versa, asking about that experience = calling up that script, can be a productive intermittent step to heighten awareness of experiences and expectations.

I divided the material into 3 categories: Environment, Supply and Demand.

ENVIRONMENTAL questions, for instance, are on topography, appearance of cities, towns, rivers, canals.

Under SUPPLY fall questions about production and services.

Under DEMAND fall questions concerning human requirements like food, shelter, work, entertainment and health care.

How specific the questions are is dependent on the students' prior knowledge.

Some questions to promote thought and discussions are as follows:

Sample previewing questions for the film Port of Hamburg[10] can be assigned as homework):
Do the students know of a river-canal system in the U.S.? (e.g. part of the St. Lawrence Sea Way).
What is the purpose of such a system? (e.g. connecting rivers, bypassing Niagara Falls).
Who/what uses waterways? (e.g. barges - transporting bulk goods).
Where is the American shipbuilding industry located? (e.g. Seattle etc.).

After viewing the film questions can be asked on different levels:
Environmental questions: Location of Hamburg? (Northern Germany near North Sea; Baltic Sea). Find regional waterways! (Elbe; Nord-Ostseekanal; Elbe-Lubeck-Kanal; Elbe-Seitenkanal = connections to the Mittellandkanal).

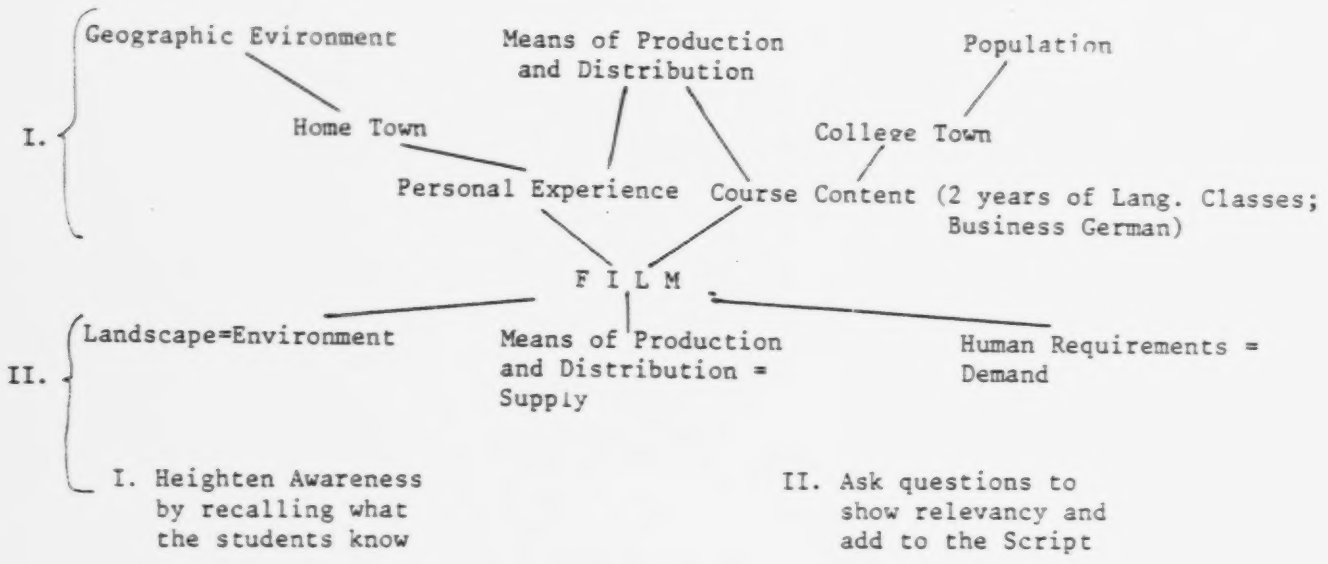
Supply-side questions: What are the two main tasks of the Hamburger Hafen? (Transfer of goods; shipbuilding)
This could be a point of departure for an in-depth discussion of production, types of companies, e.g. AG, GMBH.

Demand-side questions: What happens if there is no demand for ships? (Unemployment)
An in-depth discussion of the labor market, social services and the like could follow.

What are the expectations based on this approach - heightening awareness through showing films? What can viewing films and asking questions actually do for the students?

The students will connect factual knowledge with pictures. Upon entering the foreign culture they will recognize similar environments, and similarities to the culture they were initially exposed to. They will be looking for correspondences. The instructor's task is to add information which will assist students to beware of differences. In other words - in the terminology of Script Theory - the students will have assumptions and expectations of the environment and the culture, leading to awareness of possible sequence and content of verbal and non-verbal behavior both of which are inextricably tied to the culture of a people.

ASSOCIOGRAMM [11]


Geographic Evironment
Means of Production and Distribution
Population
I.
Home Town
College Town
Personal Experience
Course Content (2 years of Lang. Classes; Business German)
F I L M
Landscape=Environment
Means of Production and Distribution = Supply
Human Requirements = Demand
II.
I. Heighten Awareness by recalling what the students know
II. Ask questions to show relevancy and add to the Script

NOTES

1 Jurgen Streek, "Embodied Context, Transcontextuals, and the Timing of Speech Acts," in Journal of Pragmatics, 8 (1984), 119-137.

2 Roger C.Schank and Robert P. Abelson, Script, Plans, Goals, and Understanding, (Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publisher, 1977) p. 17.

3 Ibid., p. 18.

4 Carson H. Varner, Jr. & Richard O. Whitcomb,"Interdisciplinary Co-operation and the Illinois State Model," in Teaching Business and Technical German: Problems and Prospects, ed. Kathryn Buck et al., (New York: The Carl Duisberg Society, Inc., 1981), p. 45.

5 John M. Grandin, "You Too Can Write German Business Letters (With a Little Help From a Computer)," paper read at the EMU Conference on Foreign Languages for Business and the Professions, (Dearborn, MI: May 2-4, 1985).

6 Edward T. Hall, The Silent Language, (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1959), p. 48.

7 Ibid., p. 53.

8 Edward T. Hall, Beyond Culture, (Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1976), p. 35, 119.

9 Edward T. Hall, The Hidden Dimensions, (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1966), p. 136-136.

10 Film Port of Hamburg (Hamburger Hafen)# 16922 German Film Service, Modern Talking Picture Service, 5000 Park Street North, St. Petersburg, FL 33709), 15 Minutes.

[11] see Jack Moeller, Helmut Liedloff, and Helen Lepke, *Kaleidoscope*, Kultur, Literatur und Grammatik, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1983), p. IAE 8.

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USING VISUALS FOR VARIETY AND CLARITY IN COMMERCIAL GERMAN

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Using Visuals for Variety and Clarity in Commercial German

Volume 2 of the series Geschäfts- und Verhandlungssprache Deutsch from the Hueber Verlag contains a number of dialogs between two members of the Purchasing Department of the firm Euro-Engineering, Herr Berger and Herr Fritsch. In one of their discussions reference is made to the question of export credit insurance. The dialog runs as follows:

Herr Berger:Wie steht es denn mit der Kreditversicherung, wenn wir nun einen Teil der Anlage aus Spanien liefern?

Herr Fritsch: Diese Frage muß geklärt werden, aber ich sehe da keine besonderen Schwierigkeiten. Wir werden natürlich festzustellen haben, wieviel Prozent des Gesamtauftragsvolumens die Lieferung aus Spanien ausmacht.

Herr Berger: Wie hoch ist der Fremdanteil, den die HERMES akzeptiert?

Herr Fritsch: Normalerweise bis zu vierzig Prozent, wenn wir aus der EG kaufen. Den genauen Prozentsatz muß die Finanzabteilung dann bei HERMES anmelden. Und das sollte sie bald tun, denn die HERMES äußert sich oft recht spät zu solchen Anträgen.

This little dialog excerpt has very likely introduced the students who are not majoring or minoring in business to a new concept, export credit insurance. We cannot even be certain that the business majors have taken up the issue by the time they encounter it in their business German course. In fact, if we are honest about the situation, we may have to admit that the instructor has only very recently encountered this concept as well. Fortunately for all concerned, the authors of the Hueber texts are sensitive to this problem and provide an excellent glossary of specialized terminology. If we turn to the appropriate references in this case we read:

"die Kreditversicherung Beispiel: Der Exporteur gibt dem Käufer einen Kredit. Das so entstandene Risiko wird von der Kreditversicherung gedeckt."

The reference to HERMES reads as follows:

"HERMES deutsche Exportkreditversicherungsgesellschaft, vergleichbar z.B. mit dem britischen Export Credits Guarantee Department (ECGD)."

And so there we have it. There is enough information here for the diligent student to figure out the full implications of the new terminology, both of the export credit insurance and of the German company HERMES that is involved in providing such coverage. If that were the only example of such new and complex terminology in this particular dialog, one could reasonably expect the students to come to class having fully assimilated the new concepts and ready to discuss them. This is, of course, not the case. The export credit insurance is but one example of a number of specialized vocabulary terms that the students will deal with for this particular assignment. Others are Exportvergütung, Tonnenpreis, Umrechnungskurs, Schiffsraum ab Hamburg disponieren, Konventionalstrafe für Lieferverzug, die Pönale, to mention but a few. Every instructor knows that the students will come to class with varying degrees of clarity on all of these new terms. One of the purposes of the classroom experience is to see that they all leave with the correct understanding of each and every one.

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate the value, as well as the simplicity, of providing a visual context for the mastery of such new terms. The visual context helps to make the abstract appear concrete and is an invaluable aid to memory that a mere discussion of a dictionary or glossary definition cannot provide. Furthermore, by using visuals aids in the business German class, one can introduce a variety of methodological approaches to dealing with material that can, all too easily, become dull and routine. All of the examples of visual aids in the business German class that I will discuss in this paper are easy to make. Some can be done very quickly; some require a little time and planning. Some are the product of the instructor working in the last few feverish moments before class; others are the joint efforts of instructor and class. Yes, the class can be involved in the production of all sorts of visual aids, and you can be sure that those will be the ones the students will remember the longest.

Let us begin by talking about the simplest of the visuals to make--the transparency. You can make a transparency by first sketching out your scheme on a piece of paper in pencil. You then lay the clear transparency sheet over the sketch and trace it with a transparency marking pen (permanent markers work best). Or you can take your pencil sketch and feed it along with the transparency material into a Thermofax or similar machine found on most campuses today. These machines use a heat process to transfer the pencil sketch to the transparency film, which must be the kind of transparency film intended for this purpose. This takes less time than most would imagine. We are not artists, and so we are not striving to produce something visually pleasing. We are striving for clarity and simplicity, and that is where our planning time will go, i.e. into developing a scheme that is clear and simple. It must get the message across without creating its own distraction. It must not be cluttered or too busy. Let us take a few examples from the situation involving the concept of export credit insurance.

The situation is this: Euro-Engineering in Frankfurt is selling a product it manufactures to a buyer in Argentina. This is obviously a case of export. The amount of money involved here is significant, but payment will not be forthcoming until the goods are received in Argentina. In shipping the goods to Argentina, Euro-Engineering is extending credit to the Argentine company. That can be risky business, hence the need for export credit insurance to cover the risk on the part of Euro-Engineering. That is where HERMES comes in, the German export credit insurance company. All simple enough. But now to imprint this situation on the minds of the students by means of a visual reference. You can use a transparency like the one at the end of this paper desigsnated as "first transparency," that gives the development of this situation in stages. Notice how simple the drawings are. Anyone can draw this well. The point is that they are clear and easily grasped by any students having trouble keeping the relationships between Euro-Engineering, the customer and HERMES straight in their minds. A drawing like this one can be a guide for a discussion between the students, in German, of course, concerning just what is going on here. The text that you see here can, in other words, be left off, and the students can be asked to supply appropriate explanations.

Once the students have grasped this principle, you can go ahead and use additional transparencies to illustrate the more complex issues of this particular business transaction. For example, the contract that Euro-Engineering has with Mendoza, the Argentine company, states that the goods will be delivered f.o.b. to Hamburg. But, in fact, Euro-Engineering has found it necessary to subcontract some of the work on the product, which is an anti-pollution device for heavy industry called an electro filter, to a Spanish firm. To ship the Spanish-made components from Bilbao to Hamburg would not be economically feasible. "Wir müssen eben zwei Häfen anlaufen lassen," we hear the gentlemen from Purchasing say in their discussion of the problem. My experience with this dialog has been that the students are thoroughly confused until they can picture, with the help of a transparency, how this deal will develop. A simple transparency (second transparency) gives an overview of the entire Euro-Engineering/Mendoza deal.

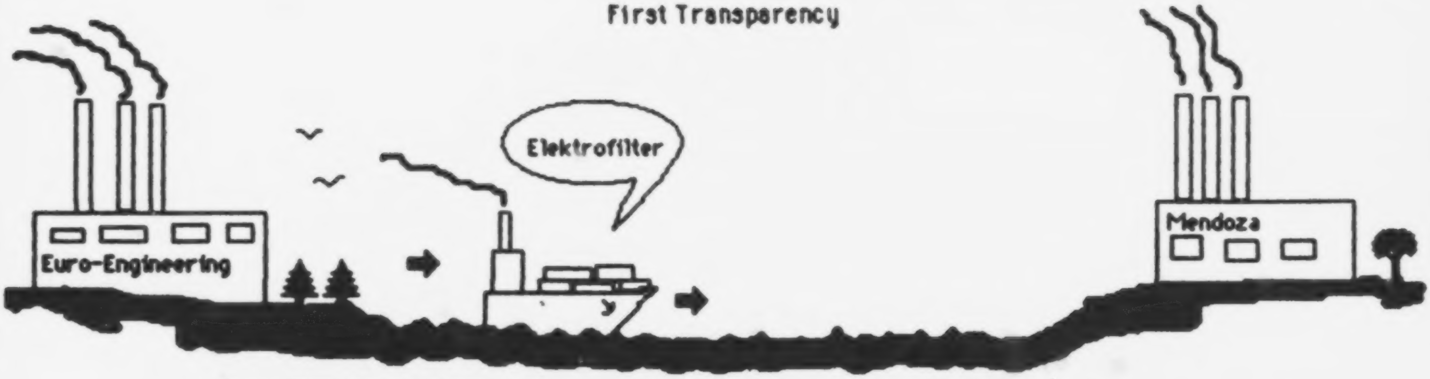
As a final example of a transparency I will use an idea which I borrowed from a German textbook entitled Betriebswirtschaftslehre. I not only use this picture and text as a transparency but also make Xerox copies or dittos to hand out to the students to take home and study. The goods were, according to the contract with Mendoza, to be delivered f.o.b. to Hamburg. What does f.o.b. really mean, and what are the other possibilities besides f.o.b.? All of this is clearly illustrated by this simple visual aid of a picture with accompanying text (third transparency).

Transparencies are handy, easy to make and carry along in your notes for the whole semester (in case you ever want to have the materials right at hand for a quick, impromtu review), but they are only visible when you project them onto the screen or wall. There may be other points you wish to illustrate and keep before the students on a more permanent basis, such as the administrative structure of the company whose dealings are the subjects treated in the materials the students are studying (first chart), or the question of the "Tarifpartner" and how the various organizations work out differences on issues affecting contracts (second chart). This is where the chart comes in. These charts can be left posted in the classroom to provide an ongoing reminder of the context for the lessons and as a reinforcing instrument for new vocabulary. Notice that the principle of keeping the visual simple, uncluttered and clear is carefully adhered to. I would rather that the students ask questions about something they feel is missing from the chart than to be turned away and discouraged by its complexity.

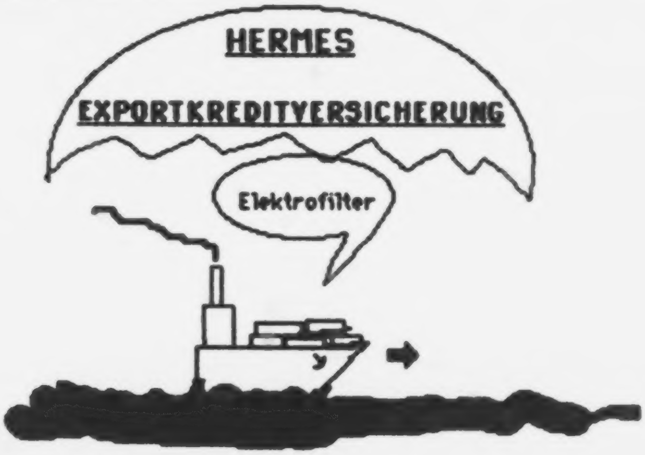
The final visual aid that I would like to encourage your using is the one that is the most fun to make and use, especially if it involves the participation of your students. I am speaking of the video tape. Most universities now have video taping equipment available to the faculty for the simple reason that the equipment is so easy to use that anyone can do it with no previous experience. I do not believe that you can go wrong with your own "home-grown" video tapes. Even your mistakes (camera pointed at the wrong person, muffed lines, etc.) can be used to get your point across. And if you have ever wondered how to introduce a little humor into the study of business German, this is it. The humor will take care of itself as soon as you turn the camera on and point it at your student actors. The script for a video tape performance included at the end of this paper was used by the students of my most recent business German course to illustrate the concept "Devisenkurs." I will use this tapes in subsequent business German courses and get the students there to help with the illustration of other concepts.

There you have it. Three different types of visuals, and there are, of course, many others. I am convinced that visuals of almost any sort help to clarify the subject and reinforce the learning process while adding variety to the class.

First Transparency


Euro-Engineering
Elektrofilter
Mendoza

Das Elektrofilter geht nach Argentinien, aber Mendoza wird erst später für die Lieferung zahlen, also Euro-Engineering gibt Mendoza einen "Kredit."

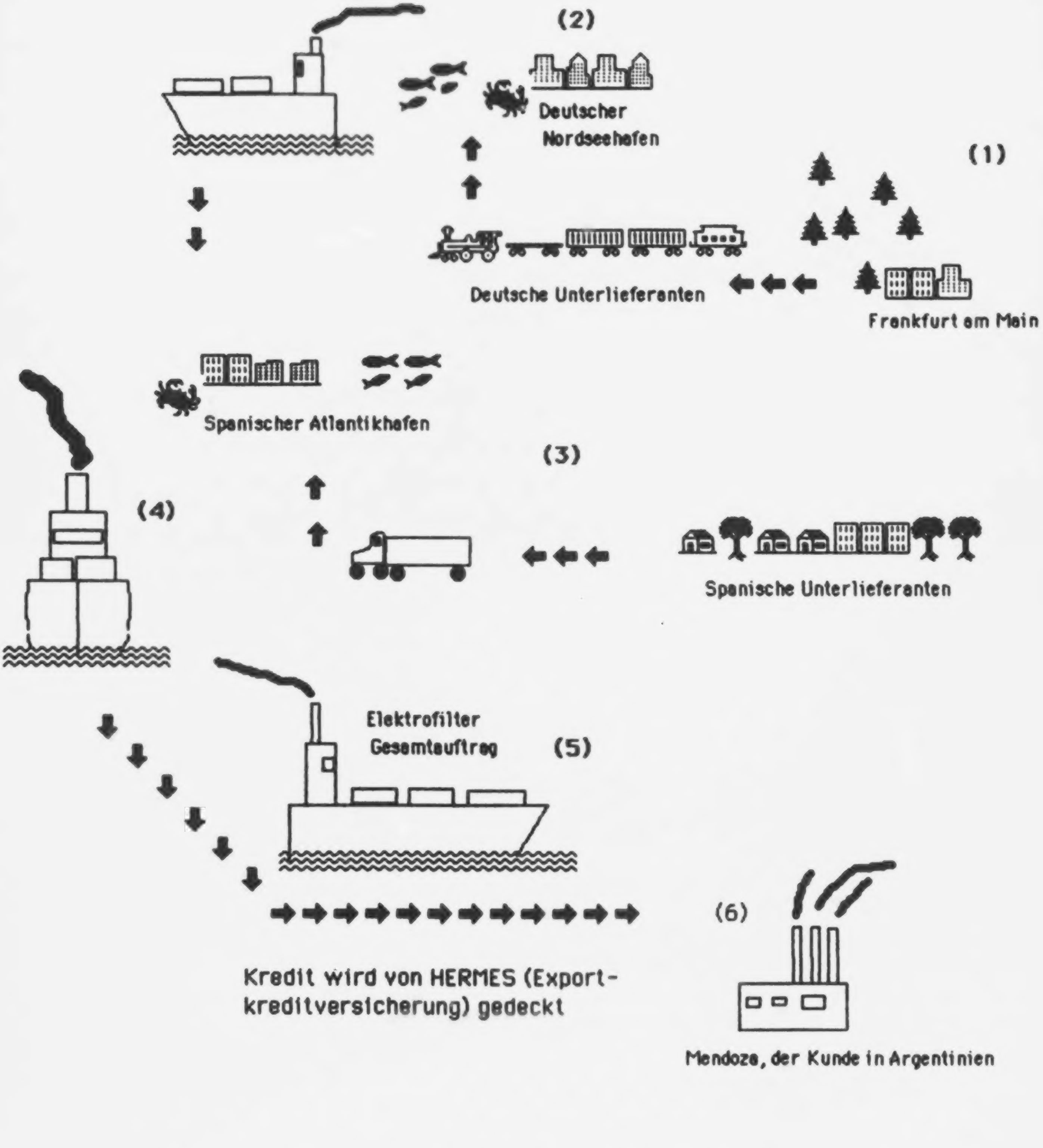

HERMES
EXPORTKREDITVERSICHERUNG
Elektrofilter

Die HERMES deckt das Risiko des Exporteurs, bis der Käufer die Rechnung bezahlt.

← Zahlung an Euro-Engineering

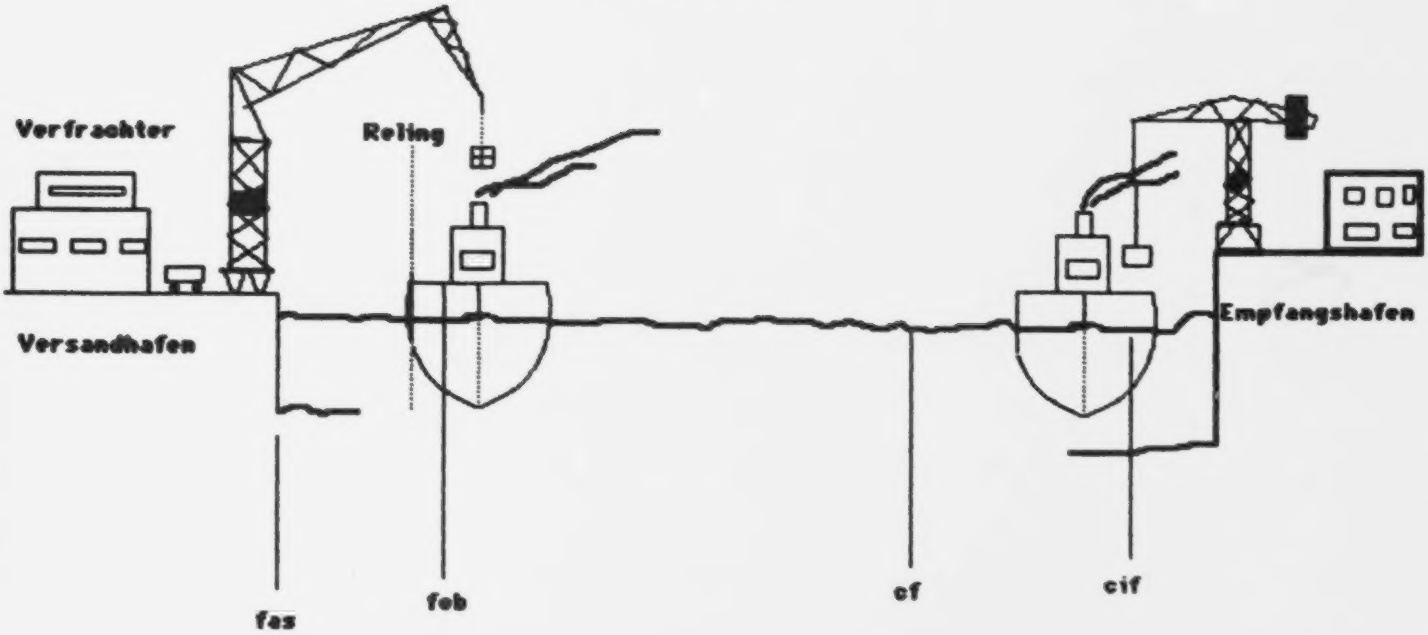
Euro-Engineering
Mendoza

Second Transparency


(2)
Deutscher
Nordseehafen
(1)
Deutsche Unterlieferanten
Frankfurt am Main
Spanischer Atlantikhafen
(3)
(4)
Spanische Unterlieferanten
Elektrofilter
Gesamtauftrag
(5)
(6)
Mendoza, der Kunde in Argentinien

Kredit wird von HERMES (Exportkreditversicherung) gedeckt

Third Transparency



Ex works (ab Werk): Sämtliche Kosten sowie das Risiko trägt der Käufer vom Ort und Zeitpunkt an, an dem die Ware ihm zur Verfügung gestellt wird.

Free on rail (frei Waggon): Der Käufer trägt die Kosten und das Risiko von dem Zeitpunkt an, an dem die Ware verladen bzw. dem Frachtführer übergeben ist.

Fas (free alongside ship = frei Längsseite Seeschiff): Kosten und Risiko gehen zu zu Lasten des Verkäufers, bis sich die Ware im Verschiffungshafen "Längsseite Schiff" befindet.

Fob (free on board = frei an Bord): Der Verkäufer übernimmt die Kosten und das Risiko bis zu dem Zeitpunkt, an dem die Ware die Reling des Schiffes überschritten hat. Zum Nachweis der Verladung ist ein reines Bordkonnossement (clean on board bill of lading) erforderlich.

C&f (Cost and freight = Kosten und Fracht): Der Verkäufer trägt die fob-Kosten zuzüglich Seefracht. Gefahrenübergang wie bei "fob".

Cif (Cost, insurance, freight = Kosten, Versicherung und Fracht): Der Verkäufer trägt zusätzlich zu den fob-Kosten die Seefracht und die Seeversicherung bis zum Bestimmungshafen. Er hat eine übertragbare Seeversicherungspolice und ein begebbares Konnossement (negotiable Bill of Lading) beizubringen. Das Risiko des Verkäufers endet wie bei fob mit der Verladung an Bord.

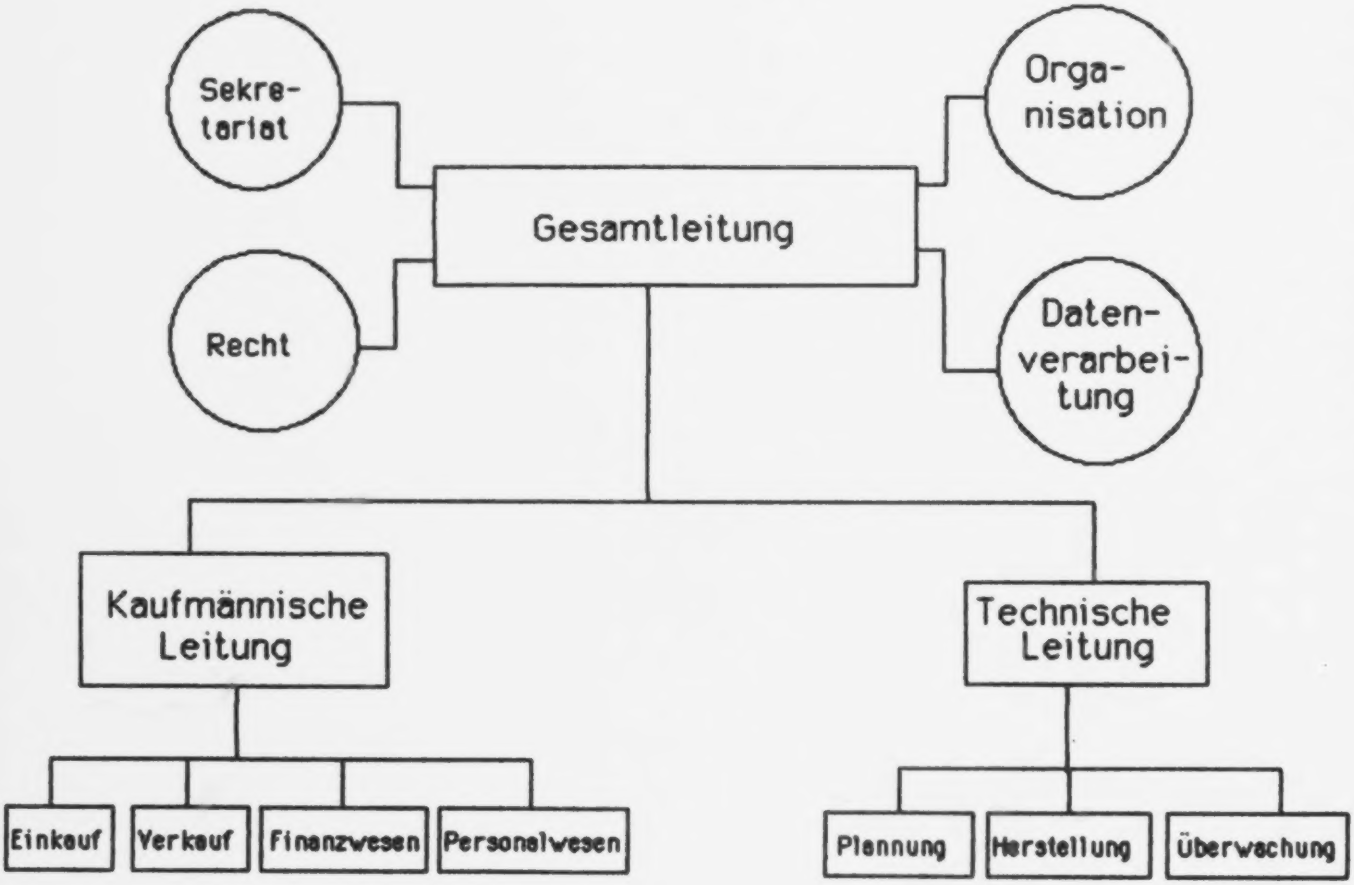
Ex ship (ab Schiff im Bestimmungshafen): Der Verkäufer trägt alle Kosten und Gefahren bis zu dem Zeitpunkt, an dem die Ware dem Käufer zur Verfügung gestellt (gelöscht) wird.

Ex quai (ab Kai--verzollt): Der Verkäufer stellt dem Käufer die Ware am Kai des benannten Bestimmungshafens zur Verfügung. Bis dahin trägt er Kosten und Risiko einschließlich Zoll und Löschkosten.

Frachtfrei (benannter Bestimmungsort): Der Verkäufer trägt alle Kosten bis zur Ablieferung am vereinbarten Ort. Das Versandrisiko geht bereits mit Übergabe der Ware an den Frachtführer auf den Käufer über.

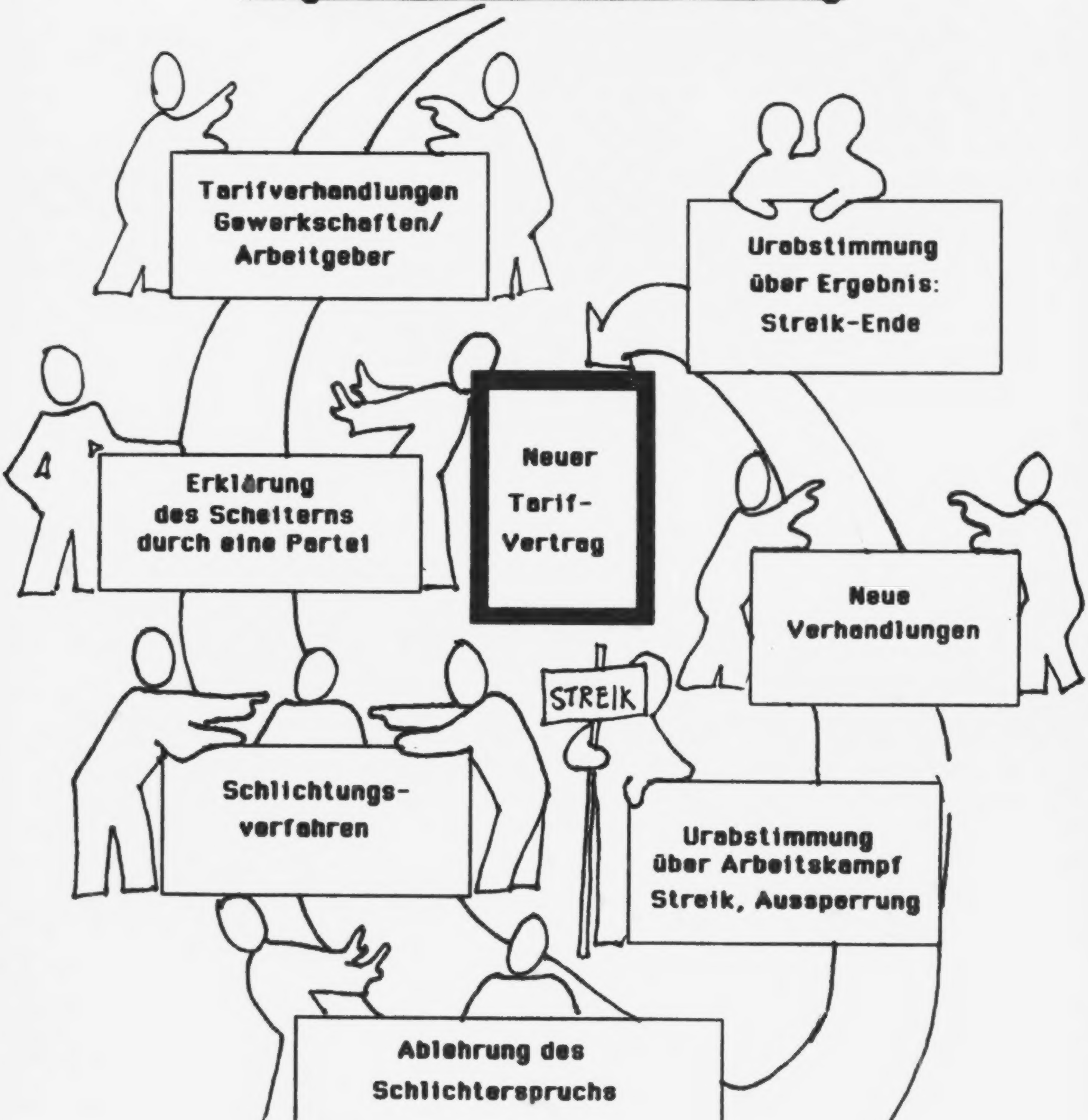
First Chart

Der Organisationsplan von E.E.


Sekretariat
Recht
Gesamtleitung
Organisation
Datenverarbeitung
Kaufmännische Leitung
Technische Leitung
Einkauf
Verkauf
Finanzwesen
Personalwesen
Plannung
Herstellung
Überwachung

Second Chart

Wege zum neuen Tarifvertrag


Tarifverhandlungen Gewerkschaften/ Arbeitgeber
Urabstimmung über Ergebnis: Streik-Ende
Neuer Tarif-Vertrag
Erklärung des Scheiterns durch eine Partei
Neue Verhandlungen
STREIK
Schlichtungsverfahren
Urabstimmung über Arbeitskampf Streik, Aussperrung
Ablehnung des Schlichterspruchs
Erklärung des Scheiterns

DEVISENKURS

Zwei Freunde sitzen am Tisch in einem Cafe. Einer ist Bankbeamter, der andere ist Sachbearbeiter in der Abteilung "Einkauf" bei einem deutschen Großunternehmen. Sie warten auf einen dritten Freund, der als Angestellter in einem Reisebüro tätig ist, und der eben eintritt. [Die Personen können entweder männlich oder weiblich sein. Die eigentlichen Namen der Studenten werden im Dialog benutzt, obwohl die verschiedenen Rollen im Text durch Buchstaben gekennzeichnet werden.]

A: Du, da kommt gerade C! [Steht auf und winkt.] Hallo! C, wir sind hier!
B: Du hast uns wieder auf dich warten lassen! Schon wieder, sollte ich sagen. Was für eine Entschuldigung hast du heute?
C: Dieselbe. Zu dieser Jahreszeit hat unser kleines Reisebüro immer die Hände voll zu tun. Die Schule ist aus, und alle Welt will in Urlaub fahren.
A: Alle Welt?
C: Nun, wenigstens die Hälfte hier im Norden.
A: Wo geht's denn hin?
C: Dieses Jahr nach Spanien.
B: Das kann ich bestätigen! Die meisten Urlauber, die zu uns in die Bank kommen, um Geld für den Urlaub zu borgen, geben Spanien als Reiseziel an.
A: Das wundert mich nicht. Und das hängt wohl auch von unserem früheren Gesprächsthema ab.
C: Wie meinst du das?
B: Nun, als du ankamst, haben wir über ein großes Geschäft gesprochen, das A's Firma über Spanien abwickelt.
C: Über Spanien? Nun, das nenne ich einen Zufall! Nicht nur die Touristen, sondern auch die Kaufleute interessieren sich für das sonnige Mittelmeergebiet.
A: Das wird wohl kaum ein Zufall sein. Der Kaufmann und der Tourist interessieren sich für Spanien, wenn nicht für das ganze Mittelmeergebiet, aus demselben Grund.
C: Aus welchem denn?
B: Geld.
C: Wie, bitte?
A: Da hat B recht. Meine Firma, zum Beispiel, kauft in Spanien einen sehr wichtigen Bestandteil eines Produkts, das wir für den Export herstellen.
C: Was kauft ihr denn in Spanien ein?
A: Na, das ist so ein Gehäuse für ein Elektrofilter, das heißt, für einen Apparat zur industriellen Gasreinigung.
C: Wichtig für den Umweltschutz, nehme ich an.

A: Genau!

C: Schon gut, aber was hat das mit den Kunden zu tun, die jetzt vor meinem Reisebüro Schlange stehen?

A: Nun deine Touristen wollen Geld sparen, genau wie meine Firma.

C: Und das kann man in Spanien?

A: Im Moment, ja.

C: Das verstehe ich nicht. Ich dächte, man spart Geld, wenn man zu Hause bleibt, und wenn man im Inland einkauft.

B: Und du arbeitest für ein Reisebüro! Schäme dich, C!

A: B, du könntest C in dieser Hinsicht etwas beibringen, bevor der Chef im Reisebüro entdeckt, daß einer von den Angestellten seinen Kunden das Zuhausebleiben empfiehlt.

C: Das tue ich sowieso nicht. Ich weiß, "Geschäft ist Geschäft".

A: Aber du könntest doch etwas davon profitieren, wenn du das Geschäft ein bißchen besser verstehen würdest.

C: Das gebe ich zu. Na, schön. Sei so gut und erkläre mir doch, wie ein Ausländer und ein ausländisches Unternehmen in Spanien Geld sparen können.

A: Wie gut, daß wir den Experten aus der Kommerzbank bei uns haben!

B: Na, ja. Experte bin ich da gerade wohl nicht.

A: Keine Ausrede!

B: Nein, nein! Ich wollte nur sagen, das der *Devisenkurs* nicht direkt zu meinem Sachgebiet gehört.

C: Der was, bitte?

B: Devisenkurs.

C: Bitte, wenn du mir etwas Technisches erklären willst, darfst du deine kaufmännische Fachsprache nicht gebrauchen. Da komme ich ja nicht mehr mit!

B: Was heißt hier Fachsprache?

C: Devisenkurs!

B: Siehst du, A. Nicht einmal die Zeitung liest C.

C. Doch, ich lese sie, und zwar "Die Frankfurter Allgemeine".

B: Aber den Wirtschaftsteil wohl nicht.

C: Den Wirtschaftsteil! Wer kann ihn ohne besondere Ausbildung verstehen?

B: Nun gut. Lassen wir das. Wenigstens eine Spalte im Wirtschaftsteil wirst du heute nach diesem Gespräch lesen und verstehen können.

C: Das hört sich gut an. Ich bin gespannt.

B: Nun, *Devisenkurs*, was ist das für ein Begriff? So schwer ist es nicht. Der Devisenkurs bezeichnet das Umtauschverhältnis von zwei verschiedenen Währungen, wie, zum Beispiel, der spanischen und der deutschen.

C: Das "Umtauschverhältnis"?

B: Ja. Sagen wir, daß du, als deutscher Tourist in Spanien etwas bezahlen willst--dein Zimmer im Hotel oder ein Essen, zum Beispiel. In deutscher Währung, das heißt in D-Mark, kannst du das nicht.

C: Ich müßte spanisches Geld haben, ich weiß.

B: Ja, du müßtest Peseten haben.

C: Und wieviele kriege ich für eine Mark?

B: Da hast du selber die Frage nach dem Devisenkurs gestellt.

C: Ich?

B: Ja. Der Devisenkurs zeigt dir genau, was du in allen Währungen aus allen Ländern für deine Mark bekommen kannst.

C: Sieh mal an!

B: So ist das. Und den heutigen Devisenkurs findest du immer in deiner Zeitung.

C: Im Wirtschaftsteil.

B: Ja.

C: Leider.

A: Oder im Fenster der Banken, nicht wahr, B?

B: Ja, auch da. Moment. [Sucht in seiner Aktentasche und zieht eine Tabelle mit dem Devisenkurs darauf hervor.] Da habe ich zufälligerweise ein Beispiel bei mir. Da! Und nun kannst du sehen, warum sich die Touristen und die Kaufleute für Spanien interessieren.

C: Wieso?

A: Das ist wirklich ein günstiges Umtauschverhältnis.

C: Aber wie kann man das wissen?

B: Nun, das ist eine gute Frage. Wie habt ihr in der Firma das gewußt, A?

A: Ja, die Sache ist immer relativ, nicht?

C: Wieso?

A: Nun, die Mark ist gegen die Peseta gestiegen, das heißt,in diesem Fall, daß sich das Umtauschverhältnis für die Deutschen in den letzten sechs Monaten um fünfzehn Prozent verbessert hat.

C: Heißt das, daß ich nun hundertfünfzehn Peseten bekommen würde, wo ich vor sechs Monaten nur hundert für die gleiche Summe in D-Mark bekommen hätte?

B: Genau.

A: Und die Preise in Spanien sind relativ stabil geblieben.

C: Also, *das* nennt man ein günstiges Umtauschverhältnis.

A: Ja, so ist es. Für den Kaufmann wie auch für den Touristen.

B: Vielleicht willst du nun auch mal einen Flug nach Madrid oder Barcelona buchen?

C: Kommt nicht in Frage!
A&B: [Zusammen] Warum nicht?!
C: Ich könnte es nicht aushalten, so lange am Schalter im Reisebüro Schlange zu stehen.
[Der Kellner kommt.]
D: Was darf es sein?
C: [Der noch nichts bestellt hat] Ich hätte gern einen Rotwein.
D: Einen Rotwein.
C: Oh, was ich fragen wollte . . . haben Sie einen spanischen?
D: Aber sicher.
C: Und, wenn ich bitten dürfte . . .
D: Ja?
C: Eine Zeitung.
D: Welche?
C: Die "Frankfurter Allgemeine".
D: Bitte sehr. [Geht.]
A&B [Lachen]
C: Na ich wollte nur mal probieren.

ENDE

TEACHING COMMERCIAL GERMAN THROUGH ADVERTISEMENTS

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TEACHING COMMERCIAL GERMAN THROUGH ADVERTISEMENTS

The teaching of a commercial language to American students is still a novelty in most undergraduate language departments. In many cases, it has become a dreaded sideline for professors who feel more at home with the teaching of literature or the traditional basic language courses. Unfamiliarity with the higher echelons of management and economics, lack of a good selection of textbooks, the ephemeral nature of news and consequent need for replacing much of the carefully prepared material each semester, all contribute to my colleagues' reluctance to tackle such a course.

After teaching commercial German for three semesters to students with different degrees of language training, I have found that advertisements are a most stimulating and helpful addition to my selection of course materials. Commercials and advertisements are untapped resourses rich in instructional potential. They do not become obsolete as quickly as does news or even textbooks. They are readily available and cheap to acquire, und certainly no advertiser is going to object if they are copied. Advertisements constitute a relatively small body of text and they can be great fun to teach, since students are already familiar with their general use and application. They also touch upon a wide variety of products and services, thus offering many topics for discussion.

Advertisements can be used in a great variety of ways to facilitate the teaching of a commercial language. If reproduced on slides, they serve as a visual warm-up exercise at the beginning of each class period, either reinforcing previously discussed topics or introducing new ones. The catchy headlines in commercials promote rapid expansion of vocabulary through repeated occurrence in different advertisements. Surprisingly, advertisements are also excellent examples of difficult grammatical structures because a sales-pitch is, by nature, often very economical and pithy in its wording and demands basic structural know-how. With the help of advertisements, students can be convinced that it is, indeed, important to master difficult grammatical structures, such as the dative and genitive cases, the passive voice and subjunctive mood, and that many advertisements will be inaccessible to them without mastery of idioms.

Apart from their importance in developing basic commercial language skills, ads have a much wider function if they are organized according to themes and general topics, such as banking, insurance, transportation, and various categories of consumer goods from food and drink to clothing and furniture, to name only a few. Here again, slides will be helpful as a welcome visual respite from textbooks. However, working with advertisements should not be limited to the showing of slides. Ads can be collected in designated folders and used as textbook supplements. The fine print in commercials, which is not easily legible on slides, can be utilized in group work for translation exercises, testing reading skills, or as discussion material. If ads are used in overhead demonstrations, students can be asked to guess the concealed headline, fill in deleted words or phrases, or invent an appropriate new text.

In addition, students might be shown an American commercial for which they have to find a compatible wording in the target language. This exercise, however, is likely to open a Pandora's box of problems. Advertisements, like humor, are often interwoven with cultural idiosyncracies; they frequently make use of proverbs, refer to tradition, local customs and regional characteristics, all of which require some cultural background. When students see how similar products and services are advertised in the target country as compared to the USA, they begin to realize the importance of understanding cultural differences in a much more immediate way than is possible in a traditional language class.

Among the many different ways in which advertisements can be used as instructional material, I suggest four basic approaches for a commercial language class. First, the quick expansion of vocabulary by explaining uncommon or difficult words in ads; second, the analysis of difficult grammatical structure; third, the explanation of idioms and cultural idiosyncracies in foreign commercials; fourth, the use of comparative advertising as a means to explain different approaches to selling similar products in different countries.

VOCABULARY EXPANSION

In German, compound nouns are much more frequent than in English. People not familiar with the German predilection for compounding adjectives, verbs or nouns are often astonished at the sheer length of some German words, and students sometimes become discouraged by having to learn such "heavy" vocabulary. Since commercials especially tend toward the use of long, impressive sounding words, the study of advertisement slogans and the breaking down of compounds into their constituent parts will help most students overcome their inhibition against vocabulary learning. Let's begin with some Lufthansa advertisements which appear in the monthly edition of Scala, a magazine published in several languages and therefore available in most departments. The Lufthansa ads will remind students that the English compound "airport" has its German counterpart "Flughafen", that the word "airline" translates relatively easily into "Fluggesellschaft", as does the word "airfleet" into "Luftflotte". The next step would be to point out German compounds that no longer translate into English compounds such as "Anschlussflüge" (connecting flights), "Wartungsstandard" or "Wartungsprogramm" (maintenance standard, maintenance program), or "Leistungsfähigkeit" which translates into more than ten English terms in a standard German/English dictionary. Rather than having students guess at the most suitable English word, the dissection of the German compound into the noun "Leistung" (performance, achievement) and the adjective "fähig" (able) will lead them to a more accurate understanding of a given context. If students are reminded that a number of German suffixes serve to change adjectives into substantives, i.e., "fähig" (able) into "Fähigkeit" (ability), they will also more quickly memorize such frequent expressions as "Schnelligkeit" (quickness, speed), "Pünktlichkeit" (punctuality) or "Gründlichkeit" (thoroughness). Several of the Lufthansa advertisements can be understood after such initial exercises, even though students might not be able to recognize every single word. Take, for example, the following slogan: "Flughafen Frankfurt - Inbegriff für Schnelligkeit, Leistungsfähigkeit, Flexibilität und sofortige Anschlussflüge. Hier, wo wir zu Hause sind, starten und landen täglich bis zu 800 Maschinen." The only noun not easily recognizable is, perhaps, "Inbegriff" (embodiment, epitome), a circumstance which could be turned into an interesting guessing game, since some students might already be familiar with "Begriff" (concept).

With the help of slides and overheads, vocabulary acquisition skills can be rapidly improved by shifting to more difficult advertising texts in business, science, and technology. The drawing of a modern, sophisticated telephone system whose cord and receiver form the profile and contour of a man's head may help suggest the meaning of "speicherprogrammiertes Mitdenktelefon" (a telephone that thinks with you, or for you, by virtue of its programmed storage). A helicopter called "Senkrechtstarter" (vertical take-off aircraft) impresses its name more plausibly on the viewer's mind when it is seen carrying a telephone booth from one place to another. Since students in business language classes invariably ask for methods to help them store the unfamiliar commercial vocabulary which suddenly confronts them, I found the repeated showing of slides with commercial slogans a most successful warm-up exercise. Compound words like "Einmalhandtücher (hand-towels to be used only once, throw-away towels), "Dauerläufer" (jogger, but also something that runs continuously), Fernsteueranlage" (remote control system), "Inlandsinvestitutionen" (domestic investment), impress themselves more permanently on a learner's memory when they are literally seen in context. Business vocabulary abounds in compound expression (stock -exchange, -broker, -price, -tax, etc.). Learning new words becomes less tedious once the individual components of compounds are understood and can be recognized in different word combinations.

GRAMMAR AND STRUCTURE

Adjective endings are the bane of the German language. Students often understand the purpose of adjective endings better when they see German ads which constantly use nominal adjectives. If an advertiser wants to describe the various qualities of a product, English language structure mostly demands that a noun follow the adjective(s). In German, adjective endings on nominal adjectives predict the noun they modify and make the naming of that noun superfluous. Thus, the introduction of a new, prominently depicted, type of wine is simply headlined "Der Neue" (the new one); the latest computer ad states "Der Richtige" (the right one); the German equivalent of gin claims to be "Ein guter Deutscher" (a good German [gin] ; the word play is lost in the translation). Furthermore, a German commercial for frozen peas reads: "Nehmen Sie was Gutes. Nehmen Sie die Süssen, Zarten, Grünen von iglo". In English, the nominal adjective is possible only in the first line: "Buy something good. Buy the sweet, tender, green peas from iglo." Besides demonstrating the frequency of nominal adjectives, the pea ad is also one of many examples of formal imperatives often used in advertisements. When a car manufacturer shows a new model claiming to have discovered "the art of combining the useful with the pleasurable", students realize that even very short and catchy slogans are subject to internal structural rules.

For example, the German car ad that reads: "Die Kunst, das Nützliche mit dem Angenehmen zu verbinden" contains a main and dependent phrase, a nominal adjective in the nominative case and a nominal adjective in the dative case because the latter is preceded by a dative preposition; the dependent phrase is actually a relative clause requiring (in this case) an infinitive structure with the infinitive verb in the end field.

The constant use of reflexives in commercials emphasizes their broad application in German, and the more difficult combination of reflexives with verbs like "lassen" is more palatable in commercials than in textbook exercises. The sales pitch for a stereo: "Eine Stereoanlage, die sich sehen lassen kann. Zu einem Preis, der sich hören lassen kann." (A stereo system than can afford to be seen. At a price that can afford to be heard) may even bring a smile where a textbook sentence would only evoke a frown. Rather than analyzing each grammatical point in every advertisement phrase, I found it more effective to focus on one particular grammatical example. Often, students will discover and remark on additional structural features; they may wish to verify the fact that the stereo ad contains two relative pronouns and the modal verb "können".

The repeated showing of slides and overheads is particularly helpful in reviewing the passive and the subjunctive. Announcements in public signs, for instance, are often stated in the passive. The German phrase: "Es wird gebeten ..." (the public is asked), followed by various requests (to not smoke, to return things to a container, to throw garbage into a bin, etc.) has replaced the formerly popular imperative. Many of the public signs display internationally recognized pictures, and a tow truck towing a passenger car will be understood as a warning when the sign also bears the inscription "Widerrechtlich abgestellte Fahrzeuge werden kostenpflichtig abgeschleppt" (unlawfully parked cars are towed away at the owner's expense). Many hotels and restaurants have a sign on the entrance reading: "Dieses Haus wird vom ADAC empfohlen" (this house is recommended by the German Automobil Club); students will want to remember this for future travels. I have made several overheads from a calendar issued by a German electric company, which proved to be especially effective and entertaining when dealing with subjunctive structures. Each calendar sheet starts with the heading: "Was wäre, wenn der Strom nicht wäre?" (How would it be without electricity?) and shows a cartoon depicting people coping without electricity. Computers are replaced by slide rules or wooden balls used in first grade arithmetic class; meat is fried over candles standing on top of cold stoves; carrier pigeons nesting in a phone booth relay messages; women peddle bike wheels connected to washing machines, and there are many more. Students enjoy these overheads, and the possibilities of discussing unreal situations in the various subjunctive forms by using vocabulary related to commerce and technology, are endless.

IDIOMS AND CULTURE

Using slides, pictures, and overheads is exceptionally helpful when the cultural aspect of a foreign commercial language needs to be explained. Many idiomatic and proverbial expressions find their way into commercials as do indigenous humor and various local customs. One may begin with the easy task of letting students identify some of the numerous anglicisms (really americanisms) that frequently appear in ads. They might be related to American products and services, or may have been adapted for lack of a more suitable German expression, or may simply be used as attractive catch words. Black & Decker's popular'dustbuster' is advertised as "Saugboy" (saugen: to vacuum, but also:

to suck); a plant nursery promises success through "Flower Power", and American Express advertises its credit card as: "The Businessman's Passport: Besonders für Oft-Flieger" (especially for people who fly often), assuming that people who fly often also speak enough English to understand their ad. At this point, the instructor may want to discuss why such commercial snobbery would not fare well in the U.S.A. if a foreign firm tried a similar trick on American customers. On the other hand, it should become obvious why many modern expressions, especially from computer and space technology, have been adapted from American English.In other examples, the German word "Dienst" is frequently replaced with the more gentle sounding English "service", as can be seen in the ad of a leading German newspaper that announces its "service" to vacationing customers.

Vernacular idioms, which often are difficult to translate, pose more problems for students. The English translation of the figurative expression "Es geht um die Wurst" (the moment of truth has come) does not correspond in any way to the delicious sausage pictured in the ad. The German expression itself makes no literal sense unless a person is familiar with the old custom of boys climbing maypoles in order to win the sausage hanging from the top. Thus, a phrase based on a local custom (literally: they go for the sausage) has found its way as idiom into German, especially into competitive language. Another commercial borrows Goethe's famous portrait to sell mineral water: "Fachinger. Das Lieblingswasser der Anspruchsvollen und Gesundheitsbewussten" (Fachingen water. The favorite water of discriminating and health-conscious people). Reference to the letter (mentioned in the ad), in which Goethe praises the water's positive effect, invites a discussion of Germany's continuing love affair with its spas, mineral springs, and natural foods. Moving into the modern world of computers, another ad depicts a little first grader holding a cone-shaped container which traditionally is filled with cookies and chocolates to sweeten the transition from play to school. Instead of sweets, however, a home computer sticks out of the bag, and the precocious little boy blinks approvingly. Most students understand the meaning of the ad and the one-word headline "Bildungsreserve" (educational reserve) only after the implications have been explained and the compound itself, especially the intricate German concept of "Bildung", has been analyzed. An ad showing a compact car, presented as: "Ein Auto,bei dem nichts zu kurz kommt" (a car in which nothing comes off short, i.e., badly,) might perplex an American reader, as would the advice by a bank to take one's sheep to dry grounds before interests fall. ("Bringen Sie Ihr Schäfchen ins Trockene, bevor die Zinsen weiter fallen", meaning to secure your assets before interests drop further). In both cases, the idiom itself is the punchline of the commercial.

Advertisements with cultural and traditional connotations are numerous and lend themselves to various uses. The countless "Jägermeister" ads, appearing in many German magazines, can be mentioned here only in passing. They typically induce a discussion about the German tradition of forestry and (herb)-liquor production. In general, the ads are very popular with students because they offer a great variety of humorous, subtle and clever slogans.[1]

[1] "Ich trinke Jägermeister, weil unsere Schuhfabrik in Absatzschwierigkeiten steckt", or, "Ich trinke Jägermeister, weil ich Wirtschaftssachverständiger bin", or "Ich trinke Jägermeister, weil ich in der Ente meines Freundes eine Gans gesehen habe". These slogans are almost impossible to translate because the wordplay is invariably lost. In the first case, a man drinks this particular liquor because his shoe manufacturing company has difficulty selling shoes.(Absatz: sales, but also: heel). The second man is disturbed by the latest economic developments; he drinks the stuff because he is a specialist in economics. The third ad pokes fun at the German predilection for labelling people or things with the names of animals. A very small French car, wobbling along the street is fondly called "duck", but a silly young girl is often derogatorily referred to as "goose". Thus, an unhappy woman exclaims that she drinks "Jägermeister", because she saw a goose in her boyfriend's duck.

COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING

Working with comparative advertising is a favorite in commercial language classes and closely related to recognizing cultural idiosyncracies. Students are amused to learn how American commercials are effectively used in the target country. They will not only remember the foreign slogan but also question any possible shift of emphasis or meaning. The once popular American Alka-Seltzer commercial promised relief from an upset stomach caused by overeating, or eating the wrong food ("I can't believe I ate the whole thing"); in German ads, Alka-Seltzer helps to give people a clear head: "Machen Sie Ihren Kopf schnell klar" (clear your head quickly), or: "Ein klarer Kopf hat einen guten Tag" (a clear head has a good day). The cause of a "fogged head" is not mentioned but the implication is obvious. The cigarette ad which graced Times Square for many years: "I'd walk a mile for a camel" has a slightly different twist in German when it reads: "Der Weg lohnt sich" (the walk is worthwhile). American texwood jeans find their way into poetry when two jeans wearers exclaim: "Ohh - wie sind wir froh, texwood sitzt am Po!"(Ohh - we are so glad texwood fits well on the fanny) with drawings of happy faces on the relevant place. Firestone tires exploit the catchy ring of German alliteration: "Füchse fahren Firestone Phönix" (foxes drive Firestone Phoenix).Coca Cola's famous ad: "It's better with Coke" translates almost literally: "Besser geht's mit Cocacola", but students will note that the pithy German Coke ad contains a common idiom.

Comparative advertising lends itself particularly well to exercises for students working in small groups. After sufficient exposure to and discussion of commercials, students should be assigned to do their own translation of ads. To translate from English into the target language is more difficult and ultimately more beneficial, but this exercise works either way. For the beginning it is advisable to let the groups work out English translations of foreign ads and compare results. It is interesting, for example, to see the result of a group translation into English of the following commercial by a German jam manufacturer: "An den Früchten sollt ihr sie erkennen" (you shall know them by their fruits). The unmistakable borrowing is, of course, from the Bible (Matt.. 7:16,20). The previously mentioned Lufthansa advertisements also serve well for this type of exercise, especially since many of the German ads have their counterparts in the foreign editions, which can be compared to the students' translations. Finally, bilingual commercials can be collected relatively easily from magazines by perusing ads of imported or exported goods, especially cars.

The different cultural mentality of American and German consumers is strikingly evident in various Volkswagen commercials. An ad showing a sirloin steak shaped like a VW beetle with the caption: "Can you still get prime quality for $ 1.26 a pound?" would most likely be lost on German buyers, as would a one line profile drawing of a beetle reminding American buyers of the famous Hitchcock face. The latter is cleverly captioned: "How much longer can we hand you this line?". Another VW ad with the single line caption "Lemon" would be impossible to relay. Not only is there no such equivalent for this meaning of "lemon" in German, but a German car manufacturer would probably not dare to draw attention to his product with such whimsical humor, even though the fine printing praises all the advantages of owning this "lemon". Comparing German Volkswagen advertisements against the English versions will prove the point and give rise to fruitful discussions. The following are good examples: "Es gibt noch Dinge, auf die man sich verlassen kann" (there are still things one can rely upon); "Er läuft, ohne laufend Ärger zu machen" (it runs without constantly causing anger); "Noch nie hatte ein Auto soviel Zeit, perfekt zu werden" (never before had a car so much time to become perfect). The only Volkswagen ad I could find using some humor in German depicts a cartoon of a beetle drawn like a friendly little fat pig, drinking from a nozzle, stating: "Volkswagen machen Sie nicht zum armen Schlucker" (a Volkswagen does not turn you into a poor devil; the German uses an idiom for "poor devil" referring to someone who has nothing to swallow).

The above examples and suggestions are not meant to be comprehensive. Visual conceptualization in language learning has proven to be an important mediator in understanding and memorization. Praising in writing the advantages of teaching with visual aids is almost self defeating. Many different methods of teaching through advertisements will suggest themselves, depending on the language level and background of students. But whatever the individual approach, advertisements are not only more fun than textbooks, they clearly motivate and stimulate students to learn a foreign business language.

YOU TOO CAN WRITE GERMAN BUSINESS LETTERS

(WITH A LITTLE HELP FROM THE COMPUTER)

By

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Department of Languages

University of Rhode Island

Kingston, Rhode Island

You Too Can Write German Business Letters
(with a little help from the computer)

John M. Grandin
University of Rhode Island

At a recent business-German conference for Germanists of the New England area the advisability of teaching German business correspondence was debated. Those in favor believed it to be mandatory; Americans planning to market abroad must be able to meet their clients on their own level, they must be able to present their products and their arguments on behalf of these products in the language of the prospective buyer. Even though many business counterparts abroad are quite fluent in English, one should not take this for granted, nor should one overlook the psychological advantage gained when approaching any foreign business associate or prospective customer in his or her own language. Furthermore, in the case of graduates from business language programs seeking employment in a German or German-American firm, it would be very difficult to write on one's resume that one is fluent in German without at the same time being able to write a letter of application or a vita in proper German style.

Those opposed to teaching correspondence in Business

German courses argued that the task is too overwhelming; the style of a German business letter is so esoteric and formal that only a native with years of training and experience can be entrusted with such a task. The vocabulary is specialized and shades of meaning are subtle; the margin of error is too great for the non-German speaker. Furthermore, German business writing style reflects a different mentality in dealing with business counterparts, which can only be fully duplicated by a native German. In short, Americans should write in English; Germans should write in German. Each side should develop a passive knowledge of business correspondence in the other's language, but not attempt to duplicate it actively.

At first glance at a German business letter such as the enclosed sample from Richard Müller & Co,[1] the untrained American student will not recognize this as the German he or she has learned in conversational classes or during a Junior Year abroad. Indeed, even his or her very German instructor might be discouraged by the thought of writing such a very hybrid prose. Not only is the outer form of the letter puzzling with its many abbreviations such as MM/ka, z.Hd., and Kd.Nr., but the writing style itself clearly departs from the spoken and written German which is generally taught in our classes. Some doubts are legitimate; can an American learn to think with extended adjective constructions and guarantee their grammatical accuracy? "Very honored Mr. Mellers, the by you with the letter of July 22, 1983

RICHARD MüLLER & CO
Bahnhofstraße 17
6000 Frankfurt 1

Eilbrief - Einschreiben

Konexa KG
z. Hd. Herrn M. Mellers
Postfach 3189
7000 Stuttgart 5

Ihre Zeichen	Ihre Nachricht vom	Unsere Zeichen	Frankfurt, den
MM/ka	22.7.83	Mü/se	29.7.1983

Reklamation
Kd.Nr. 03/4772-M, Gesch.Nr. 3655/83

Sehr geehrter Herr Mellers,

die von Ihnen mit Schreiben vom 22.7.1983 angekündigte Lieferung ist erst heute bei uns eingetroffen, nachdem offensichtlich eine Verzögerung eingetreten war.

Bedauerlicherweise müssen wir Ihnen mitteilen, daß die Geräte noch nicht in den Verkauf gehen können, da nur eine japanische Gebrauchsanleitung beiliegt. Wir möchten Sie dringend bitten, uns umgehend 50 Stück deutschsprachiger Gebrauchsanweisungen nachzuliefern.

Ihre Nachlieferung erwarten wir bis zum 2.8.1983.

Wir bitten um Ihr Verständnis, denn wir möchten unsere angekündigte Verkaufsaktion pünktlich am Langen Samstag, den 6.8.1983 starten.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen
Richard Müller & CO

R. Müller

announced delivery arrived at our company only today, apparently after the occurrence of a delay." Such stylistic issues are further compounded by the presence of potentially confusing cultural issues. Can Americans be close enough to German culture to understand their specific business needs? "We ask for your understanding, for we would like to begin our announced sales program on the long Saturday of August 6, 1983."

This author would argue that German business correspondence is an essential part of a Business-German program precisely because of the difficulties involved. If we are to work effectively with German business, or indeed any international counterpart, we can become most proficient in their ways of thinking and action if we concentrate on those areas where the differences are greatest. As has often been pointed out, the language of international business is not English, but rather the language of the customer. Like it or not, German business prose is integral to the way of doing business in Germany, Switzerland, and Austria, three countries which are crucial to our export business and which are now being wooed by our strongest competitors. In the following it will be shown that the hurdles described above can be overcome and that supporting systems are now available which will help us to train candidates in business German programs to feel at home with this specialized prose.

A number of texts are available for teaching German business correspondence.[2] Of all of these, however, the recently published text by two colleagues of the Goethe Institute, Werner Schmitz and Dieter Scheiner, is the most straight forward, imaginative, and innovative in its approach. Ihr Schreiben vom... (Verlag für Deutsch, 1983) demonstrates that the initially intimidating phraseology and syntax of German business correspondence is actually quite predictable and, therefore, organizable, and learnable. Though we would rarely say in daily conversation: "Bezugnehmend auf den am 2. Mai von Ihnen unterzeichneten Vertrag..." or "Zu den von Ihnen genannten Bedingungen ist uns die Ausführung Ihrer Bestellung leider nicht möglich...," Schmitz and Scheiner demonstrate that such sentences are typical of a cultivated and specific business style. Ihr Schreiben vom... is based on the observation that German business correspondence is made up of a quite finite number of standard combinations of words, phrases, and sentences which form the general framework within which the specifics of a given business problem are housed. For example, opening sentences typically refer to the arrival of the other person's letter, or entertain a request, or notify the addressee either of good or bad news. Thus, the authors are able to list series of opening lines appropriate to these circumstances, from which the following examples are excerpted:

> Wir bestätigen dankend den Eingang Ihres Briefes vom...
> In Beantwortung Ihres Briefes vom...
> Unter Bezugnahme auf Ihren Brief vom...
> Erlauben Sie, daß ich mich mit folgender Bitte an Sie wende:

Wir freuen uns, Ihnen mitteilen zu können, daß...
Wir bedauern, Sie darüber informieren zu müssen, daß...

Depending upon the purpose of a given letter, Schmitz and Scheiner offer several categories which may follow the sentence chosen for the Textbeginn. If the letter is a request for bids on a particular project or item desired, the writer would move from an opening line (e.g., ich erlaube mir, mich mit folgender Bitte an Sie zu wenden:), to specific questions on prices (e.g., in welchem Rahmen sich Ihre Preisvorstellungen für.... bewegen.), delivery times (e.g., in welchem Zeitraum mit der Lieferung zu rechnen ist.), questions regarding quality (e.g., der Qualitätsstandard der von Ihnen hergestellten Waren.), and so on. Step by step the student is able to work his or her way through this text and find appropriate lines which become the basis for individual letters. The book does an excellent job of describing the outer form of the German business letter: Adressen, Betreff, Bezug, Anrede, Schluß, Unterschrift, Anlage and so on. Once this is established, a broad variety of phrases and sentences are supplied for Textbeginn, Textende, die Bitte, die Anfrage, das Angebot, die Bestellung, die Lieferung, die Reklamation, and Zahlung. In addition, textual material is supplied for common letters in the business world, e.g., letters of application, requests for references, letters of resignation, and the proper form for a German Lebenslauf.

The book provides exercises (with an answer key) which teach students how to combine these sentences with one's own needs and thereby form very respectable letters, which are convincingly native in style. In the fall semester of 1984 I introduced this text to my Junior and Senior business German students as a reference tool. They found that within a very short period of time their writing style became programmed to formulate letters in ways which hitherto had seemed to be unreachable. The book worked very well in conjunction with H. H. Wolff, Geschäfts- und Verhandlungssprache Deutsch (Hueber Verlag, 1974). After studying Volume I (Das Vorstellungsgespräch), the students were asked to write letters of application and a curriculum vita in German with the help of Ihr Schreiben vom...; after studying and drilling Volume 8 (Das erfolgreiche Angebot), they were asked to actually formulate competetive bids in letter form.

Given the organizability and predictability of German business style, the computer offers itself as a tool which can work together with this new text, and expedite correspondence needs even further. Since most office work is done on some form of word processor today, why not store the standard phraseology for German business correspondence, as organized by Scheiner and Schmitz, in the computer, assign a number to each sentence or phrase, and then call each forth as needed, sentence by sentence with the stroke of single keys?

After discussing this idea with students, who responded enthusiastically to the idea, it seemed that this could be readily done by storing the sentences in the special Glossary which Apple's word processor (Apple Writer) already contains. Since the Glossary was found to be too small to contain the hundreds of necessary sentences, however, it was necessary to design a new program which would be compatible with the word processor, and thus function as an adjacent glossary or phrasebook. This program, in its current state, will store up to 500 such phrases in a given file, any of which may be called forth in its entirety by number, and then completed either by its author with his or her own information or by pressing another number which will supply the necessary completing clause or phrase. For example, under the category: Sie wollen eine schlechte Nachricht mitteilen: Schmitz and Scheiner list these possibilities:

1. Leider müssen wir Ihnen mitteilen
2. Es tut uns leid, Ihnen mitteilen zu müssen
3. Bedauerlicherweise müssen wir Ihnen mitteilen
4. Wir bedauern, Sie darüber informieren zu müssen
5. Leider sind wir in der Lage
6. Leider sehen wir uns gezwungen, Ihnen mitzuteilen
7. Zu unserem Bedauern müssen wir Ihnen mitteilen

If the problem concerns the fact that an expected delivery has failed to arrive, the text gives the following as a possible choice:

21. die Lieferung, die Sie uns mit Schreiben vom... angekündigt hatten, hat uns bisher nicht erreicht. Wir bitten um Mitteilung, wann wir mit dem Eintreffen der Waren rechnen können.

Thus by pressing number 7, the writer calls forth: Zu unserem Bedauern müssen wir Ihnen mitteilen. Before proceeding to number 21, he or she may modify that phrase by adding the subordinating conjunction daß in preparation for a dependent clause. By pressing number 21, the new information is added and the sentence now reads:

> Zu unserem Bedauern müssen wir Ihnen mitteilen, daß die Lieferung, die Sie uns mit Schreiben vom... angekündigt hatten, hat uns bisher nicht erreicht. Wir bitten um Mitteilung, wann wir mit dem Eintreffen der Waren rechnen können.

Two further key strokes will supply appropriate concluding lines such as: Für eine baldige Information wäre ich Ihnen sehr dankbar. Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Naturally the computer will not know that certain phrases are unacceptable with the verb in second position. Also it will not allow internal blanks to be filled at this stage. Thus, once the selection of appropriate sentences is complete, it is necessary to carry out certain editing tasks. The computer program described herein is written in Basic and thus works very well in conjunction with word processing systems compatible with that language, e.g., Apple Writer, the Apple word processing program. In a very simple transfer, the newly created letter can be loaded into

Apple Writer, edited, and then immediately printed as a completed document.

To expedite the editing process, it is also possible to store one's own letterhead with appropriate spaces for Aktenzeichen, Diktatzeichen, date, and so forth. For example, this author might store the following framework for business letters to Germany:

APPLEKORRESPONDENZ

65 Rockland Drive
Wakefield, Rhode Island
USA 02879

Ihre Zeichen	Ihre Nachricht vom	Unsere Zeichen	Wakefield, den
		JG/kd	

Betr.:

Sehr geehrte

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Dr. John M. Grandin
Anlage

This letter format may be reproduced on the word processor with a single LOAD command, whereupon it then is ready to receive the letter created from the Letter Writer Program described above. With a few editing steps, most of which involve punctuation and placement of verbs, the completed letter may be stored on a disk for future

reference and printed for mailing as follows:

APPLEKORRESPONDENZ

65 Rockland Drive
Wakefield, Rhode Island
USA 02879

Agora GmbH
Salzburger Straße 19
6000 Frankfurt 1
West Germany

Ihre Zeichen	Ihre Nachricht vom	Unsere Zeichen	Wakefield, den
HM/jk	5.3.1985	JG/kd	15.4.1985

Betr.: erwartete Lieferung

Sehr geehrte Herren,

Zu unserem Bedauern müssen wir Ihnen mitteilen, daß die Lieferung, die Sie uns mit Schreiben vom 5. März 1985 angekündigt hatten, uns bisher nicht erreicht hat. Wir bitten um Mitteilung, wann wir mit dem Eintreffen der Waren rechnen können.

Für eine baldige Information wäre ich sehr dankbar.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Dr. John M. Grandin

NOTES

[1] Dieter Scheiner and Werner Schmitz, Ihr Schreiben vom... (Munich: Verlag für Deutsch, 1983), p. 87.

[2] The following is a partial list of available texts dealing with German business correspondence:

Harvard, Joseph. Bilingual Guide to Business and Professional Correpondence. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1965.

Heintz-Schuppmann, Karin and Halm, Wolfgang. Briefeschreiben - leicht gemacht. Munich: Hueber Verlag, 1971.

Horten, H.A. Commercial Correspondence in Four Languages. New York: Hart Publishing Company, 1970.

Manekeller, Wolfgang. 100 Briefe Deutsch für Export und Import. Munich: Langenscheidt, 1983.

Sachs, Rudolf. Deutsche Handelskorrespondenz. Ismaning: Hueber Verlag, 1979.

Watson, Hilde and McGuinn, S. German in the Office. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1978.

CODETERMINATION IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

By

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CODETERMINATION IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

The Federal Republic of Germany, in which the experience of political democracy is still a relatively new venture, has launched a full scale experiment in industrial democracy giving workers federally guaranteed rights and authority in industrial decision making. The progression to the current legal structure is based on the premise that human dignity demands that the worker be viewed as more than "...simply a segment of the production process which is governed solely by capital interests. Proceeding from this basic thought there is today (in West Germany) widespread agreement that industrial goals must be codetermined by working people and that industrial decisions which affect the worker must allow workers a democratic voice in the decision making process." (Tatsachen ueber Deutschland, Gutersloh, 1982, p. 257)

Herbert Ehrenberg, the German Minister of Labor, wrote in 1976, that expanded codetermination laws appear as "...a requirement of human dignity, the protection of which the constitution demands of government as its primary task." (Mitbestimmung, Bonn, 1979, p 5). The worker is the immediate victim of inflation, recession, overproduction, mechanization, loss of competitive strength, industrial corruption and plant closings or slow-downs . In democratic West Germany the workers have been given a direct voice in and responsibility for those decisions which affect them, not only through government, but also in the workplace.

Although the German system may strike even very liberal Americans as at least futuristic (or from a more negative perspective, shockingly radical), most Americans are essentially unaware of even the most rudimentary and innocent levels of worker participation in West German industry. I have been surprised again and again in interviews with American business students, business faculty, and business leaders to find most often a lack of awareness of not only the working of, but the existence of the system of industrial democracy in a nation which, although physically small, is economically the fourth largest in the world and is also our single largest competitor in the world market. It seems particularly strange that the German model is essentially ignored at a time when American industry, very concerned about worker alienation and levels of productivity, is spending millions on schemes attempting to increase employee involvement. It seems strange that as the American Catholic bishops call for greater economic justice and protection of human dignity that the German model is not mentioned. Nearly every worker in Germany (including foreign workers) is directly affected. Only 3.4 million workers in the very smallest companies (fewer than 5 employees) remain outside of the system.

At the most basic level, all workers in companies with five or more employees are entitled to elect a works council

(Betriebsrat). By federal law, management must consult with the works council concerning all worker dismissals, manpower planning, operations changes, work procedures, the protection of jobs and the general work situation. Generally speaking, the works council must be informed in a timely manner and given the opportunity to discuss all management plans which will affect workers. In certain areas the works council has the stronger right of direct joint decision making with management and may legally block management desires. This right extends to working hours, methods of payment, hirings, vocational training, vacation, transfers and working conditions within the enterprise. These rights are guaranteed by federal law and are independent of individual union contracts.

All companies with over 100 employees must also establish a workers finance committee which meets once per month with the employer and must be given information on the economic and financial situation of the company, the production and marketing situation, production and investment programs, rationalization plans, the introduction of new work methods, the reduction of operations, the transfer of establishments, and changes in organization.

The works council structure was established by the Works Constitution Act (Betriebsverfassunzsgesetz) of 1952, strengthened by the second Works Constitution Act of 1972, and has functioned with little friction. The only large scale controversy has been in a few cases where large fast food chains have insisted that since each individual franchise may have less than five full-time employees, that the company as a whole is not subject to codetermination laws. McDonalds continues to be widely scorned for the policy, but it has not adversly affected business nor profits.

Management generally speaks positively of the works council system. Thirty years of experience have shown that elected employees work harmoniously and effectively with management and in fact the council has been very effective in identifying problems early which could have led to serious labor difficulties if allowed to develop.

The more controversial aspect of codetermination is the election of workers to boards of directors (Aufsichtstrat). By federal law large stock companies must allow employees to elect 50% of the board of directors with rights and authority equal to owner's representatives on the board. In the mining, iron and steel industries (Montan-Mitbestimmenzsgesetz) the laws are now traditional, having been instituted in 1951, two years after the establishment of the Federal Republic of Germany as a nation. In the case of the mining, coal, and steel industry, there was comparatively little difficulty in effecting the system. German industry had been destroyed in the war and faced difficulties in recovery under the Allied occupation. The full effort and cooperation of labor was essential to the rebuilding effort.

Parity worker participation did not lead to the outrageous demands many might assume, nor to a loss of competitive capacity. Rather the industries affected grew once again to full size and strength and became fully competitive in the world market. There have been confrontations in those industries from time to time, but for the most part owners and labor have worked well together making decisions together which have been needed for good business. (The current recession in the world steel industry, and the challenge of Third World steel industry, have affected the German industry, but no more so, and often less so than in other western industries without codetermination.)

Nevertheless, the newer codetermination law of 1976 which expanded worker representation to industries other than those covered in the 1951 law, led to strong resistance by capital interests. It was feared that the new system would lead to slower decisions, loss of industrial secrets, excessive demands, and general loss of competitive ability. A major challenge to the constitutionality of the new law was launched, but the new system was upheld and instituted. Under the new law, an additional 500 of the largest German companies are required to have parity employee participation on the supervisory board. The 1976 law calls for an equal number of workers representatives and owners representatives on the board, but in the interest of owners (and often the chagrin of the unions) the scales are tipped somewhat in favor of the owners. The chairman of the board must be from the capital side, and the chairman has the authority to break ties.

Also, one of the employees' representatives must be a person with management responsibility. Nevertheless, the chairman seldom is forced to use tie breaking authority as honest attempts at harmonious decision-making are made by both sides to avoid confrontation and the disruption of production.

After 8 years of experience, labor activists continue to deride the absence of full parity, and owners continue to be concerned about excessive labor influence. Some owners, however, have begun to use the system and benefit from it.

A consistent spokesman for the system is Philip Rosenthal. Management Review reported in 1981, "Rosenthal AG of West Germany says it has increased its productivity by 58% in the last five years. Return on investment has climbed from 6% to 15% in the same period. When necessary, the company has introduced automation and mechanization, closed plants, and cut its work force with the full cooperation of its unionized employees." Rosenthal states, "... the attitude of our employees is a critical and a key factor. Industrial democracy in our organization is now fundamental to growth." (Management Review, March, 1981)

Works council representatives with whom I have spoken (both from the labor and the management side) have expressed comfort with the situation. The regular meetings of councils are carried out in an orderly fashion without a spirit of confrontation. Meetings I have observed have been cordial, although I have been assured in private by representatives from both sides that they can be quite tough in discussions when the situation requires it. Meetings of the boards of directors are much the same.

"Without a spirit of confrontation." That spirit of cooperation in the common interest is key to the entire system. Federal legislation on codetermination specifically calls for peaceful cooperation in the common interest rather than confrontation, and in the German experiment the ideal has begun to be realized. The traditional adversary role between owners and workers is being replaced by constructive common effort.

It is precisely on that point that American labor continues to reject the idea of codetermination. It is felt that it is only through an adversarial role and confrontation that labor can achieve its ends.

Thomas H. Donahue, executive assistant to the president of the AFL-CIO, said in 1976, "We do not seek to be a partner in management, to be, most likely, the junior partner in success and the senior partner in failure. We do not want to blur in any way the distinctions between the respective roles in management and labor in the plant. We guard our independence fiercely - independent of any political party and independent of management." (Cited in Robert Kuhne, Co-determination in Business, New York, 1980, P. 103.)

George Meany, President of the AFL-CIO said in 1976, "It will not work here. The Germans did it because they were worried about someone like Hitler reappearing. But I never saw a union that was worth a damn unless it was free - completely and absolutely free." (Ibid.)

In contrast Herman Rebhan, General Secretary of the International Metalworks Foundation said in 1980, "A political outlook that prefers confrontation to cooperation may win cheers at the conferences of conservative parties and employers' federations around the world, but what it gains in a warm glow of union-bashing, it loses doubly or three-fold in industrial disruption or social unease." (Vital Speeches, April 15, 1980, p.396.)

Rehban was elected in 1978 to represent labor on the board of Ford Motor Company in West Germany. Asked if he doesn't feel a conflict of interest at times functioning as a union executive and sitting as an employee representative on a board of directors, he responded that this objection is based on the assumption that workers' interests are diametrically opposed to those of owners and managers. Most workers worry about the health of the company where they work. They have a stake in its future, and want to know how it's doing businesswise, and what its plans and prospects are. (Robert A. Senser, "Industrial Democracy, Ltd.", Commonweal, Sept. 12, 1980, p. 489.)

It is not uncommon in West Germany that union activists serve on works councils and union executives are elected to boards of directors. Some owners charge that that dual function more than offsets the lack of full parity workers have on boards. Yet we have not seen abuse on this basis in the German system. The attitude has developed among worker representatives that cooperation can replace confrontation. It is clear that the workers are as interested in the health of the company as the owners. Both live from it. Again and again workers representatives have expressed this idea to me in interviews and expressed astonishment at destructive strikes in other nations over issues which could have been settled through discussion and compromise within the framework of codetermination.

To be sure there are strikes in West Germany (although far fewer than in most industrial nations). The unions remain strong and are hard negotiators for their members. The metal workers strike of 1984 was ample evidence of continuing union strength and union ability to move to confrontation. But even in the face of a strike, the cooperative potential of codetermination continues to work. During the strike works council members and boards of directors representatives often become strike leaders. Yet even during the strike they were able to re-enter the plants for emergency meetings of the works councils. Immediately after the strike, they were able to return to the discussion tables and begin cooperating with management to seek ways to recover production loss during the strike. In most cases by the end of

1984 companies affected had achieved the year's production goals despite losses during the strike termed "disasterous". Many companies actually exceeded their year's production goals. The system worked. Cooperation was able to re-emerge immediately after hard confrontation.

I talked with several strike leader/worker representatives about this after the strike. They felt no conflict of interest in the situation. In both roles they functioned as representatives of the workers. When they felt the strike was needed, they participated, but immediately afterwards, the best interest of the workers lay in the greatest productivity of the company, and they returned to that task with an energy equal to that which they had devoted to the strike.

I also spoke with several members of management who had been on the inside during the strike and who had also returned immediately to working with the former strikers. They thus fulfilled their responsibility to work to return the company to profitability. Although there was some residual bitterness after the strike, both sides were driven by common interest to work cooperatively again, and the structure of codetermination provided an adequate vehicle to accomplish this end.

One might wonder, if the system of codetermination were to work fully, would it not have the tendency to weaken and eliminate unions? Could not all problems be solved in the boardroom and through compromise at the works council? The German system does not envision this. Workers elected to the works council may not negotiate contracts nor in any way in their function as legal representatives enter into confrontation with management. That role is reserved for the unions. Thus through the unions the traditional adversary potential and defensive weapon of labor is retained. Unions are, however, concerned about loosing membership due to the lack of need for frequent confrontation brought about by codetermination. There has been evidence during the past several years of decreasing feeling of need for the unions on the part of the workers. The unions thus very actively seek to make it clear that the union is the agent of contract negotiations and the ultimate strength of labor and must remain strong. The unions also point out that a central source of information is needed to assist worker representatives in individual plants and to assist in training worker representatives to do the most effective job. The unions offer training sessions for newly elected worker representatives, publish a good deal of information on codetermination, and support research on codetermination. The unions thus have indirectly become an agency of strengthening the system of cooperation. The employers associations too offer seminars for new representatives and publish informational material, but workers tend to prefer those sponsored by the unions.

Workers are given ample opportunity to learn to function in the responsibilities to which they are elected. An early concern that common workers would not understand the complexities of directing a business, would thus make many mistakes, and due to lack of understanding of business would make excessive demands, have not been problematic. Those elected to responsibility have tended to be mature to the responsibilities for which they have been elected. The unions assist in providing early training, providing continuing education, and providing comparative data for use on the job. Titles of articles on codetermination such as the one which appeared in Fortune in 1976, "The Hardhats in Europe's Boardrooms", with a sketch of workers in hardhats and work dress, do a disservice by furthering a stereotype. Workers representatives elected to boards of directors have been sophisticated, reasonable, and quite able to deal with the issues before them.

Quoting again from Herman Rebhan, "What do you want me to do? Wear Jeans? I don't wear jeans even at home. In my factory days I always took off my work clothes after work. The idea that workers and union officials have to 'look' like workers is outmoded. You can usually spot the intellectuals at a union convention: They're the ones who dress up to look like they've just walked off the assembly line." (Robert Senser, "Industrial Democracy, Ltd.", Sept. 12, p. 489).

Once again Philip Rosenthal, "They will choose to make necessary investments and finance research and expansion rather than squander company profits on inflationary wage rates and vacations. They will accept the need to integrate operations and eliminate jobs to improve efficiency. If employees have no say in the matter, it is inevitable that they will simply seek higher wages." (Employee Participation by Force", Management Review, March, 1981, p. 35.)

The early fears of the inadequacy of workers in positions of corporate responsibility have not been proven well founded. The anticipation that workers would use position of authority to demand exorbitant wages have not materialized.

In a common declaration issued with the court determination that the 1976 law is, in fact, constitutional, the federal ministers of labor and social order, justice and the interior called again for cooperation. "Now to an even greater measure within the application of the codetermination law we must proceed in the spirit of cooperative effort. The judgment of the court re-affirms codetermination as a system of cooperation, which lives from the common effort of all involved. We assume that all parties are prepared for fair cooperation in high degree." (Mitbestimmung, Bonn, 1979, p. 358).

George Meany dismissed the German move to workers' rights as a kind of paranoia related to the Hitler experience. There may be some element of accuracy to that, for much of German attitude since 1945 is indeed colored by the shock of the Nazi experience. But it must be understood that industrial democracy is by no means a new concept in German history. The precedent can be found as early as the Frankfurt Parliament of 1848. The first codetermination laws were enacted in 1920. Further, the spirit of full democracy called for in the constitution of 1949 is widely interpreted as leading naturally to industrial democracy as a logical progression.

An American, Paul Fisher, asked a question in 1951 which might well occur today, "Is it, in fact, the first step toward communism? Is it...an attempt on a grand scale to socialize power without socializing ownership, a procedure to seize authority from the employer without conferring it on the state? Is it a step in the development of a corporate state, or of an economy based on the teachings of the Catholic Church?" (Cited in Alfred Thimm, _The False Promise of Codetermination_, Lexington, Mass., 1980, p. 12).

The ultimate results are not yet clear. Philip Rosenthal with his characteristic optimism wrote, "...We have found a 'third way' - a middle course between unlimited capitalism and bureacratic communism - i.e., workers participating in private industry..." (_Codetermination: Worker Participation in German Industry_, New York, 1977, p.5).

A third way? A temporary compromise in a land torn between the ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union? A transition to communism? Only time will tell. For the present, those to the far left dismiss it as a temporary delay in the overthrow of the free market system. Many idealists and political figures praise the system as a major step in the development of democracy and human dignity. Most Germans have ceased to regard it as novel, and accept it as a normal part of everyday working conditions.

Whatever the ultimate development may be, West Germany has demonstrated that workers can share a great deal of authority in the industrial structure while continuing to perform with a sense of responsibility to the company and to the whole of the national economy. West Germany has become again one of the world's leading economic powers with a strong and innovative industrial base. With full scale codetermination in place, German industry has weathered the most recent world economic crises and has been able to rationalize and retrench when needed and expand when needed with the cooperation of elected workers in positions of authority.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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PART VII

SPANISH FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

MANAGERIAL CONCERNS AND HISPANIC CULTURE IN THE AMERICAN WORKPLACE

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May 1985

Managerial Concerns And Hispanic Culture in the American Workplace

Since a large number of Hispanics are participating in the direction of various American Industries, I want to focus this paper on the Hispanics' behavior in relation to their culture and their interpersonal relationships in an American working environment. Some of the critical points are related to the cross-ethnic cultural labor traits, the Hispanic perception of managers and how American managers can accommodate the Hispanic needs in their organizations.

Besides the Mexican Americans who have been involved in the economy of the southwest, some studies have been conducted about the great number of Hispanics and their descendants entering in the labor force of America. The Hispanic population is largely composed of Latin Americans. They have been immigrating here in the last fifty years for various social or political reasons. The 1980 United States Census Bureau data indicates that by 1990,[1] Hispanics could surpass Blacks as the nation's single largest minority. There are four states with concentrated Hispanic population; California, Texas, New York and Florida.

Fifteen states have now an Hispanic population of at least 100,000 people. The Hispanic population is concentrated around many industrialized cities which utilize their manpower. Therefore, as the Hispanic labor becomes increasingly involved in the American economy, managers are and will be dealing with cultural differences and concerns. Industry will rely on Hispanics, as a manpower resource and organizations have to recognize the needs of this minority group in their organizational development.

This study will consider one important aspect which differs in the management philosophies of North Americans and Latin Americans. Management in the United States is partly a science and partly an art. Frederick W. Taylor, Henry Fayol, Locke and other modern views of management[2] have agreed that management embodies basic principles and relationships which can be codified and communicated. The scientific approach popularized by Taylor, as an aid to managerial decision making, has become a basic instrument to the management philosophy of the United States. It is defined as an approach in management "that emphasized the importance of designing jobs and tasks so that they could be performed as efficiently as possible."[3] This philosophical view of management is hardly accepted by Latin Americans. Their philosophy of management is more simple and based upon art. For decision making, the Hispanics rely upon intuition to reach the solutions to problems at work and in real life situations.

A Latin American is a man of passion. Action becomes more important because he can express his spontaniety and, consequently, his inner feelings. There are certain characteristics in the Hispanic personality that enables him to accept the effectiveness of the Scientific method. The Hispanic is more impulsive and disregards objectivity. This can create an imbalance in the organization. It can hamper any decision making to improve production and interpersonal relationships between managers and Hispanic workers in the working environment of American industries.

How can managers improve their relationships with Hispanics? North American managers should be aware of the cross-cultural attitudes of the Hispanics. A manager working with this group should realize that the skills that lead to managerial success with his countrymen may not be as practical for the Hispanics. Managers have to search and reach the cultural values of the group in order to interact better with them. The use of bilingual questionaires about their personality will help the managers to establish a mutually satisfactory and productive relationship with the workers.

For the American manager will be the challenge of conditioning the Hispanics to adapt themselves to accept the components of the Scientific method. The Hispanic has to learn new personal values, such as being patient, careful, orderly in thinking, and the ability to achieve results and desired goals by objectives. From my managerial point of view, behavior modification can succeed when managers recognize the cultural differences, and proceed to satisfy the Hispanics' needs in the organization.

There are cultural trends that an organization should consider when it interacts with any Hispanic group. In the Hispanic society, traditional values prevail toward work and life. The Hispanics have molded their behavior to the cultural norms imposed on them for generations. In an Anglo work place, the Hispanic finds those ties disfunctional and counter productive. This transition has been difficult for the Hispanics. Consequently, there has been much friction in the relationships of managers and Hispanic workers. Leadership can be defined as goal-directed interpersonal communication. Because of their roles in the organization, supervisors and subordinates must interact in various situations. Casual relationships are meaningful interactions because they help to define situations. The development of coorientation between managers and subordinates implies that leadership is a two-way communication process. The effective leader must be influenced by his subordinates as well as exert influence. Thus, not only must Hispanics learn to adapt to the demands in the work place; equally, a cultural implant is essential for managers. Managers can learn the attitudes and behaviors toward other people by associating with them outside of the work place. Socialization with the native culture has been noted for its effectiveness in the leadership style of managers in international management.

This approach can be useful for the establishment of good relationships between American managers and Hispanics because "These attitudes and behaviors toward people are assumed to be central determinants in shaping the processes the managers employ to influence the activities of individuals or groups toward goal achievement in the work place."[4] In an Hispanic country the leadership style is authoritarian and paternalistic. Interacting with an Hispanic group at the social level can be fruitful. A manager will more readily perceive the culture of his co-workers. He will realize that he needs to make an extra effort in interacting with them. Thus, he will become more conscious of the essential needs of the workers in the environment of his organization.

In the Hispanic culture, a manager or supervisor assumes a paternalistic role. The Hispanic respects him dearly, as long as the manager shows appreciation and recognizes his work and his personal needs. These are oriented to provide for the welfare of his family. It is an affectionate quality that prevails in the Hispanic society in the relationships of managers and workers. The Hispanic worker demands to be seen as a person, a whole being, and not simply as a productive unit. Having acquired this concept about authority, "The security and welfare of the worker is taken care in turn for the latter's willingness to take orders, owe allegiance and work hard."[5] Thus, the employers are responsible for their employees at work and over other aspects of their lives.

This paternalistic approach of management in the Hispanic world can be a disadvantage when an Hispanic participates in a U.S. organizational setting. The Hispanic will experience the coldness and indifference of the American managers toward the workers, not only in their interpersonal relations but also in their appraisal of productivity. Since the Hispanic worker has been accustomed to hear direct praise or complaints from a superior about his job performance, he becomes frustrated, at least in his first encounter with the American working environment. Here, no such warm, friendly work ambiance exists, but rather a superior-subordinate relationship prevails in most American organizations. The managers behavior is different, enforcing dominance by shouting and yelling to the workers.

These typical characteristics of most American managers may well be perceived with resentment and be considered as offensive by Hispanics. It can have an impact on their negative behavior toward the managers and the organization, as well. The Hispanics expect to receive criticism about their work with politeness and be given specific directions regarding their accomplishments. There have been some remarks made about the behavior of an American supervisor working with a group of Mexicans. De Forest, an experimental consultant working with Hispanics, describes the following situation at a company in Santa Fe Springs, California, where two hundred Mexicans on the second shift were once threatening a wildcat strike.[6] The incident centered about a foreman who was so serious that two of the long-time Mexican employees quit. After some investigation, the problem was not related to the quality of production that the foreman demanded, but rather that he used "foul language and shouted." This type of behavior displayed by the foreman is unacceptable by any Hispanic group. Hatred will arise from the person involved. As in this case, it was conceived as an insult for all the Mexican workers, not only coming from the supervisor but from the organization as a whole. Thus, American personnel with an authority position should learn more tact skills in communication to relate better to an Hispanic group.

Another commentary made by an Hispanic worker about the effectiveness of communication is the following statement:

> I feel our supervisor should work with me if there is a problem. We should work together. Many times he hollers at you over the radio (P.A. system). He could come over and explain things to me personally.[7]

By this commentary, we can conclude that the Hispanic places a value in personal attention and reservation. He likes to face a problem "vis a vis" with a superior. Any remark should be addressed in private, not facing an audience. The reason behind this is the "honor" or the self-esteem of the Hispanic personality. The supervisor would have been more effective if he had talked to him in his office, and if he had been more sensitive about the Hispanic pride. As a result, the Hispanic worker would have had an incentive to try harder and produce high quality to please that paternal figure. Also, the supervisor would have gained more respect and trust, avoiding future confrontation with the worker.

Another aspect in communication is language. Many Hispanics in the labor force do not know English. It is the most troublesome barrier between U.S. managers and Hispanics. First, it can handicap their ability to be promoted and have better opportunities to be included in decision-making processes at all levels of production. Second, it can restrict the access of Hispanic workers to important information about payroll rules, benefits, safety regulations, working instructions, insurance and other relevant information to the workers. A comment by a Mexican worker calls attention to a drawback of many Hispanic workers in America. He said;

> We need better explanations, in simple terms. Like they should tell us how to use insurance and how to use benefits. We do not know this at all. So it is just like we do not fill out the work tickets or number of hours they work or what they do because they do not know how to read and write English.[8]

Managers in the American organizations would do well to realize that the business organization structure of most Hispanic countries is different. Workers do not have to worry about formal procedures or paper work. Such responsibility is placed at the top administrative level. For complaints, the Hispanic worker directs himself to the top because grievance procedures are non-existent in the Hispanic organization setting.

However, some American organizations with a large number of Hispanics have recently increased their efforts to develop Language Training Centers. Aetna Life and Casualty Co. in Hartford,[9] established a program where trained employee volunteers teach English as a second language. Also American managers and supervisors are learning some basic communication skills, along with some training of Latin culture and habits. English-speaking Merrill Lynch employees had agreed that "learning Spanish has both practical and personal values."[10]

This is a beginning, a step in the right direction to accommodate the essential needs of the Hispanics. Consequently, interpersonal relationships have improved and have raised morale among the workers. Also there has been a more active participation of Hispanic workers in production. Absenteeism has decreased. Quality has improved at the same time productivity has increased. I believe that the use of bilingual personnel at all levels is essential in a large corporation with Hispanic workers. Rules, safety signs, benefits and other literature related to the employees welfare should be printed in Spanish for a better understanding of the working environment.

In conclusion, American organizations can not ignore the needs of the Hispanics. With changing social and economic realities, we must accept certain cultural differences that are present in the management of Hispanic workers. Hispanics are more dependent than Americans and have a paternalistic view of leadership of an organization. The Hispanics rely on subjective perception and are more sensitive than American workers. Therefore, Hispanics require more tact in communication from managers at all levels. Organizations have to restructure their settings in relation to the increase of the Hispanic population. One has to be realistic, the Hispanic community exists in the United States. It has its own character. It is a factor in the economic, political, social and cultural life of our nation. Collectively, the Hispanics represent a growing economic force and an important market for many American companies.

Notes

[1] G. Johnson, "Administración en un Medio Ambiente Hispánico," Industry Week, January 1982, p. 30.

[2] Robert Baron, Behavior organizations (Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon Inc., 1983), p. 30.

[3] Baron, p. 22.

[4] D.B. Stephens, "Cultural Variation in Leadership Style: A Methodological Experiment in Comparing Managers in the U.S. and Peruvian Textile Industries." Management International Review, March 1981, p. 47.

[5] Robert Redher, Latin American Management Development and Performance (California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1968), p. 149.

[6] Mariah De Forest, "Mexican Workers North of the Border," Harvard Business Review, May-June 1981, p. 152.

[7] De Forest, p. 153.

[8] De Forest, p. 152.

[9] Johnson, p. 31.

[10] "'Survival' English Does the Job," Manpower, December 1970, p. 12.

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PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN M.A. PROGRAM IN SPANISH FOR BUSINESS, PUBLIC EDUCATION, SOCIAL WORK LAW, AND MEDICINE

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PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN M.A. PROGRAM IN SPANISH FOR BUSINESS, PUBLIC EDUCATION, SOCIAL WORK, LAW, AND MEDICINE

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In early September of 1982, after more than three years of detailed market studies, research, and planning, La Salle University, a private, Catholic institution in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, launched a vocationally oriented Master's Degree in Bilingual/Bicultural Studies (Spanish) which is characterized by a design model very different from that of the traditional programs in Bilingual Education. The purpose of this paper is to share with you the rationale of our new Program, a description of the basic structure and contents of its curriculum, and our problems in planning and implementing the program.

According to the 1980 Census there are more than 86,000 Hispanics living in Philadelphia and its environs. 46.5% are from Puerto Rico, 13.5% from Mexico, 7% from Cuba, and 33% were classified as "other Spanish". For the past several years, in order to meet the educational needs of the Hispanic child and other ethnic groups whose first language is not English, Philadelphia schools, both public and private, have developed various models of bilingual programs. The main thrust of these programs is to help the minority child, especially the Hispanic, become bilingual. The Puerto Rican youngster, who is, after all, an American citizen, is expected to learn to understand, speak, read, and write in English, become culturally attuned to mainland America, and hopefully ought not lose his or her skills in Spanish or pride in his/her cultural heritage. It is obvious that Hispanics and other non-English speakers are required to become bilingual and bicultural while English speakers in the United States remain monolingual and monocultural. Should not bilingual education work in both directions? There appears to me to be an inequity here.

As a professor of Spanish, a long time supervisor of foreign language teachers and ESOL teachers, and a teacher of English in Spain, I have been struck, especially in recent years, by the irony and danger of our present situation. The role and importance of foreign languages at all levels--elementary, secondary, and university--have become increasingly diminished. At a time when Paul Simon's tongue-tied American is ubiquitous, our efforts in bilingual education and bicultural training appear in the main to be limited to remedial education for our ethnic minorities. Are our secondary schools and universities teaching our Anglo students true communicative skills in a foreign language, especially Spanish? Do the teachers themselves receive the necessary training to teach these skills? And if they do, what kind of language do they teach? In our bilingual schools, are the Hispanic teachers sufficiently trained to speak and write correctly in English? Do the teachers of ESOL represent a truly positive role model? Are these teachers bilingual and bicultural individualswho have grappled with the psychological and intellectual processes of learning another language, and have they been exposed to another culture where they were no longer members of the "in" society? I am afraid that in the majority of cases the answers to these questions is a resounding "no."

The field of education, however, is not the only one in need of professionals with bilingual/bicultural skills. Many of our city's urban professionals need to communicate in Spanish with the large Hispanic population and also become increasingly aware of the cultural background of Hispanics and of the desperate economic and social predicament of many of these people, especially in these difficult years of the '80s.

In order to meet the linguistic and cultural needs of so many diverse professionals who deal directly with the Hispanic community, we at La Salle University have developed a three track Master's Program in Spanish and Bilingual Studies.

Track I is intended for teachers of English to speakers of other languages and/or of bilingual education, for teachers of Spanish as a first or second language as well as for all other educators, such as guidance counsellors, administrators, and special education teachers.

Track II is intended for professionals who need Spanish language training and increased bicultural understanding to function more effectively in the Hispanic community (businessmen, policemen, social workers, nurses, employees of utility companies, writers in industrial plants, and members of religious communities).

Track III is intended for educators and urban professionals who possess at least a bachelor's degree, wish to develop language and/or cultural proficiencies, yet do not wish to pursue a second degree program.

Each track in the Program offers intensive training in Spanish and English and courses of an interdisciplinary nature in history, art and music, literature, sociology, and education. These courses, taught by members of several of our departments within the University, deal with the multi-faceted nature and problems of Hispanics, their cultural roots, and their problems in adjusting to the mainland way of life. With the exception of one professor, all of these instructors are bilingual in Spanish and English.

Since our Program is a part-time one, and a student may matriculate in no more than two courses each semester, completion of the thirty credit hour minimum requires two full academic years. Between the first and second year of the Program there is a 5 week evening immersion seminar which consists of 3 segments of study. The first segment is a 1 and 1/2 hour intensive language program in Spanish. The second segment consists of a series of workshops in which all candidates share the expertise of key members of our Hispanic community to develop specialized skills and training specifically needed for their profession.

Our urban professionals, therefore, work with leaders of social, political, and urban agencies that deal with the day to day problems of our Hispanic population trying to survive in our large problem-ridden barrios. Each Wednesday during this 5 week immersion program, our students do not attend classes on campus. Instead, they participate in a practical field experience, working directly either in a bilingual school, social agency, police precinct, or a local hospital. They are required to maintain detailed logs in which they relate the theoretical material learned in their course work to the realities of the Hispanic's plight in an urban setting. Drug and alcohol abuse, problems of health and nutrition, the complicated role of the Hispanic woman, welfare dependency, and adult illiteracy are the themes of these workshops. A vocationally oriented program such as ours, taught in a university setting, needs the expertise of Hispanic professionals who work in the community and serve as positive role models; otherwise the curriculum would remain remote and out of touch with the needs of Hispanics.

Both the immersion program and the curriculum of the regular academic year include courses in the Spanish language. This component of our program is probably the most innovative, and I might add, the most controversial. These courses are taught by qualified Caribbean teachers who are assisted by Hispanic students from the very program. Our Hispanic students, who receive stipends from the University, have proven to be an invaluable aid in individualizing instruction in these courses.

Having pretested our Track I students, we have discovered that their ability to understand native Caribbean speakers is poor, even though most of out students in Track I have undergraduate degrees in Spanish and have been teaching for at least one year. We feel very strongly that teachers in Track I and urban professionals in Track II must be able to understand and communicate with our particular Hispanic community. For Philadelphia, this means learning the idioms, intonation, and pronunciation characteristics of Caribbean Spanish. No students may graduate from the Program without attaining a stipulated level of competency in this important linguistic area.

With few exceptions out Hispanic students do not need these intensive language training courses in Caribbean Spanish. What they do need, however, is more training in their use of the English language. The course, therefore, English for Hispanics, is designed to offer these students advanced training in writing and speaking in English.

In addition to this constellation of language courses, our Program includes several interdisciplinary ones related to cross-cultural communication, to the comparative historical background of Hispanics and North Americans with an emphasis on Puerto Rican history, to the literature of the Caribbean, and to the sociological history of minority groups in the United States. These are our "core" courses since they are required of all students in the Program. In these classes, there is a stimulating and an invaluable mix between the educators of Track

I and the other urban professionals of Track II. The professors of these courses inform me that a tremendous amount of interaction develops between and among the students, and that ideas and concepts generated in the classes are thought through, questioned and argued in a very open and constructive manner. In addition, the mix between Hispanics and Anglos in these core courses creates a very positive atmosphere for true cross-cultural communication.

One of the objectives, for example, in the cross-cultural communication course, as stated by its professor, is: "to reduce any counterproductive stereotypes and prejudices which students may have toward people of other cultures." In this class, the students have been Hispanics from Puerto Rico, Cuba, and Guatemala, a nun from Madrid, an Anglo priest who is coordinator of a Spanish apostolate near Philadelphia, a Cuban field inspector for the city's police department, an ESOL teacher in one of our local prisons, and a writer for the Philadelphia Electric Company. The important point here is that the professor of the class found ample opportunity to analyze and discuss with the students, sometimes heatedly, cultural stereotypes and cultural differences,includingthoseinthe area of non-verbal behavior.

These bicultural courses as well as the language courses are evaluated by traditional graduate school techniques: mid-terms, final examinations, and papers. The capstone experience of the Program, however, is less traditional. Instead of writing a theoretical research paper or taking a series of comprehensive examinations our students are required to develop a practical project which directly relates to their present or future profession. For example, a nurse who works with Hispanics in an important health center in Philadelphia has written a bilingual manual which deals with health care in pregnancy and child bearing. A Spanish teacher in a secondary school has created a series of cultural assimilators which she actually utilized with her own classes. Finally, one of our May '85 graduates is completing a study of the technical vocabulary in Spanish needed by the Electric Company to address the needs of its Hispanic consumers. At the end of the first year of the Program, each student chooses a particular faculty member to guide him or her in the writing of these projects. One important Puerto Rican agency and an ethnic museum in Philadelphia have already requested copies of these projects for their archives.

In the early planning stages of this vocationally oriented program, my colleagues and I became acutely aware of the importance of forming an advisory committee that would not only include school administrators and faculty, but also key members of our highly pluralistic urban community: an Hispanic administrator of an important social agency, a representative of a large Philadelphia business corporation, a member of the Police Department, the Director of the Philadelphia Bilingual, ESOL, and Foreign Language Department, a member of the Philadelphia Spanish Apostolate, and finally a psychologist in an important children's hospital located within our principal Hispanic barrio--all these people helped give structure and relevance to our Program. They remain actively interested in our progress and are our best sources for recruitment of students.

Also, from the very beginning stages in planning for this Program, we received financial support from both public and private agencies. Our own State Offices of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Education in Harrisburg awarded us three technical assistance grants to help defray the cost involved in writing our original proposal and conducting several market studies. The Tinker Foundation of New York City, particularly interested in the innovative nature of our language courses, made a generous award to us for the writing of syllabi, for advertising the Program, and for increasing our library acquisitions. The Samuel Fels Foundation of Philadelphia provided us with funds to purchase a variety of state-of-the-art audio-visual equipment and teaching aids: a video cassette recorder together with a camera, a good supply of video cassettes, cassette tape recorders, a short wave radio, and a sophisticated Caramette slide projector. All of this equipment is being utilized in both the language and bicultural classes. We are also the grateful recipients of a three year continuing training grant under Title VII of the Bilingual Education Act. This generous grant helps defray the cost of faculty salaries and provides additional funds for library acquisitions, and advertising.

Finally, the University itself provides a limited amount of scholarship money to assist qualified and needy students. We generally apply scholarship money to the tuition of the rather costly nine-credit Spring Immersion Program.

The financial cost to the prospective student for such a program is only one of the many problems that we are encountering. Counselling and advising part-time students who are employed during the day and whose free time is very limited is another difficult and sometimes vexing problem. Our most important concern, however, is and has been how to deal with faculty and administrative reluctance to accept a vocationally oriented graduate program. All of our faculty and administrators are products of very traditional research-oriented Ph.D. programs which emphasize theoretical approaches to learning and the extensive use of the library in the development of a documented thesis. Our new Master's Program, however, must reach out beyond the walls of the University and the traditional modes of teaching and learning. An awareness of the stark reality of the ever-present problems of ethnic minorities, a knowledge of community resources, the ability to address the financial needs of a desperately poor society, the development of sensitivity to linguistic and cultural differences, and the ability to communicate verbally and non-verbally with Hispanics--these competencies are not taught by professors who distribute long bibliographies at the beginning of a graduate course and then require students to prepare equally long research papers at the end. Such activities may be entirely viable for other types of graduate curricula. It is my opinion, however, that such traditional approaches doom vocationally oriented graduate programs. Learning another language for communication purposes, especially a brand of Spanish as difficult as Caribbean Spanish, is in itself a challenging and respectable task; in many ways, as most of us realize, it can be as challenging a task as the study of literature, which has been the traditional focus of graduate courses in our field.

Our new Program is obviously an effort to bring together the worlds of foreign language instruction and bilingual / bicultural studies. I was recently heartened by reading Alvin Eurich's article, "A New Direction for Bilingual Education in the 1980s", which appeared in ADFL. Eurich states:

> A new wind is blowing...The United States public is beginning to accept the ideas of "minimum competencies" and "basic education" expected of all those growing up in the society. Language competence, including proficiency in at least one language in addition to English, could become part of the constellation of basic skills more generally expected of students. The participation of all kinds of students in bilingual education programs is a way for the worlds of foreign language instruction, bilingual education, and education for international understanding to come

> together as part of a general improvement in United States education.[1]

To accomplish this admirable goal, we need to begin to train our teachers and urban professionals to become themselves bilingual and bicultural. This is the basic premise of our entire design model. We think it is working.

Notes

[1] Alvin C. Eurich, "A New Direction for Bilingual Education in the 1980's," ADFL Bulletin 14 (1982): 6.

THE TOTAL PACKAGE

By

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THE TOTAL PACKAGE

In order to work effectively with a Spanish-speaking clientele, professionals must have a knowledge of the language. Clients from the Southern Cone cannot be confused with those from the Caribbean,nor can clients from Central America be confused to have the identical background as Mexican-Americans. Professionals must also be aware of the geographical,historical,political,social and economic facts about the client's native country,as well as its language and culture. As today's average college student often seems to have little or none of this background information, the Language for Special Purposes course provides an excellent opportunity to present it in context and in the target language.

My presentation suggests a holistic approach to Spanish for Special Purposes with particular reference to Spanish for Social Workers. Traditionally, the focus in these courses has been on the linguistic aspects of the professional field with scant, if any attention, paid to the human context within which this field exists. Instead of delving into the historical, and cultural elements that naturally emerge from a contact situation between a professional and an Hispanic client, these opportunities to obtain crucial cultural skills have been neglected. The Total Package presents a complete unit created for an undergraduate Spanish class. The unit consists of an authentic five part case history,detailing the class placement of Juan,a six year old who is suspected of having a learning disability. The social worker,educational evaluator,school psychologist,and Juan's mother work together to place Juan in the class more suited to his needs. All relevant vocabulary develops naturally within the context of interviews,discussions and tests. A Cuadro Puerto Rico-USA follows consisting of short texts written in Intermediate level Spanish to acquaint students with the geography, history, political,social and economic backgfound of Puerto Rico. The unit is completed with selections of Puerto Rican songs and poetry.

The five part case history forms the backbone of the unit. They were developed through extensive observation in social service agencies,schools and community organizations and through interviews with social workers, teachers, psychologists,community workers and other professionals. Although the names of clients and professioanls have been changed to protect their privacy,the case itself is based on authentic materials and first-hand observations.The case is presented in the form of a dialog,which is introduced by a scene-setter. For example, in Caso 2 La historia familiar we have the following scene-setter:

> *En la escuela John F. Kennedy la trabajadora social, Josefina Molina, continúa entrevistando a la madre de Juanito, la Sra. Lourdes Ramos. Para poder escribir un informe completo sobre el caso, la Sra. Molina le pide a la madre ciertos datos sobre su familia y acerca del desarrollo y la salud de Juanito.*

Thus, before beginning to read the case, the student knows who are the people involved,and what will be the issues addressed in this dialog. To guide the student during the reading, there are throughout the case notes that include gestures and situational and emotional clues to make the character and the situation as visual and real as in a play. Let us look at the following selection from Caso 3 la especialista en educación:

	Klinger saca las tarjetas del Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test* en español). Te muestro la tarjeta y te digo los nombres de los objetos y tú me indicas a qué retrato corresponde. ¿Está bien?	
J. Ramos:	(Mostrando cierta impaciencia) Ujú.	
E. Klinger:	Vamos a hacer uno para ensayar* aquí. Si yo digo "martillo*", tú me muestras el dibujo del "martillo". (Juanito señala* con el dedo la tarjeta donde aparece el dibujo de un martillo).	*to practice/hammer* *points*
E. Klinger:	Muy bien, muy bien. Ahora vamos a comenzar. el próximo es "tanque".	
J. Ramos:	Ése.	
E. Klinger:	Ahora, "escalera".	
J. Ramos:	Ése, ahí.	
E. Klinger:	"Horror".	
J. Ramos:	Eso es como feo, ¿no?	
E. Klinger:	"Hueso*".	*bone*
J. Ramos:	Mírelo, es ése. (Juanito empieza a ponerse inquieto y a mirar las cosas en el salón).	
E. Klinger:	Ahora, Juanito, pasamos a otra prueba. Pero tienes que escuchar muy bien. Te voy a decir que hagas unas cosas, pero tienes que escuchar bien, porque no voy a repetir. ¿Estás listo? (El niño indica que sí con la cabeza).	
E. Klinger:	Bueno, aquí va. Pon el lápiz encima del cuaderno. Levántate. Ve al estante de libros* y saca el libro rojo y me lo traes.	*bookcase*
J. Ramos:	¿Y qué más? (Arrugando* la nariz)	*wrinkling*
E. Klinger:	Ya, eso es todo. Mira, ¡haz lo que te dije!	

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*Form of IQ test based on the ability to associate and recognize a word or concept with its pictorial representation.

The student not only is reading the case, but is exposed to the behaviors that accompany this language. In certain instances the answers given to questions are non-verbal (a nodding of the head, a wrinkling of the nose), and are, therefore, important clues to the comprehension of the case.

Readers will also notice immediately that several registers of language are used. The Casos reflect the background of the speakers and give us information such as their country of origin, whether they are from city or the country, the amount of formal education they have had, their social and economic class, and the length of time they have been in the United States. In Caso ? La historia familiar the contrast between the more colloquial language of Sra. Ramos , and the more formal language of the social worker, Sra. Molina is especially evident in the

section dealing with Sra.Ramos' pregnancy, and the birth of Juanito:

Sra. Molina:	¿Nació al término* de los nueve meses?	*at the end*
Sra. Ramos:	No, ése se me adelantó unas tres semanas. Fue todo de sorpresa, pues no lo esperaba para entonces.	
Sra. Molina:	¿Y su salud durante el embarazo?	
Sra. Ramos:	Me fatigaba mucho. Es que engordé tanto que se me hincharon* los tobillos* y los pies.	*swelled* *ankles*
Sra. Molina:	¿Cómo fue el parto? ¿Hubo alguna complicación?	
Sra. Ramos:	Muy largo: ése sí que me dio trabajo. Por poco me muero con esos dolores, y nada que salía…	
Sra. Molina:	¿Tuvo usted cesárea?	
Sra. Ramos:	No, pero nació con instrumentos.	
Sra. Molina:	¿Con forceps?	
Sra. Ramos:	Creo que sí, lo tuvieron que jalar* para que naciera.	*pull out*
Sra. Molina:	¿Cuánto pesó* al nacer?	*weigh*
Sra. Ramos:	Bueno, unas seis libras* y algo…	*pounds*
Sra. Molina:	¿Y cómo era la salud del padre de Juanito?	
Sra. Ramos:	Ése siempre ha sido fuerte; ni un catarro le da.	
Sra. Molina:	¿Y cómo era Juanito de niño?	
Sra. Ramos:	¡Ay Dios! qué niño para no dejarme en paz. Se la pasaba moviéndose*, no dormía nada y le daban unos dolores de barriga*…	*was very restless* *stomachaches*
Sra. Molina:	¿Y qué decía el médico?	
Sra. Ramos:	Nada, que eran cólicos, que eso le pasaría y que le pusiera una bolsita de agua caliente*.	*hot water bottle*
Sra. Molina:	¿A qué edad se sentó sólo?	
Sra. Ramos:	Ay, yo no sé si me acuerdo: por ahí a los siete meses.	

In the section on La familia y el niño in Caso 2, the story of Juanito's family can be seen as a microcosm of the history of the Puerto Rican migration:

Sra. Molina:	¿Usted trabaja fuera de casa ahora?	
Sra. Ramos:	No, solamente estoy cosiendo° un poco por las noches. Me pagan por pieza°.	*sewing* *by the piece*
Sra. Molina:	Y su esposo ¿en qué trabaja?	
Sra. Ramos:	Pues, él es el super del edificio°.	*building superintendent*
Sra. Molina:	¿Ha habido alguna ocasión en que Juanito hubiera estado separado de usted por una temporada° larga?	*period of time*
Sra. Ramos:	Cuando yo vine a este país de Puerto Rico vine sola y le dejé a Juanito a mi mamá, y luego a los tres meses ella vino con él.	
Sra. Molina:	¿Qué edad tenía Juanito entonces?	
Sra. Ramos:	Unos cuatro meses.	
Sra. Molina:	¿Qué aspiraciones tiene usted para su hijo?	
Sra. Ramos:	Bueno, usted sabe, uno siempre quiere lo mejor para los hijos, que no tengan que luchar tanto como uno; por eso para mí la educación es muy importante para que él pueda conseguir un buen trabajo y llegue a ser alguien.	

Cultural facts that emerge here are the pattern of migration in which a single adult come first to the mainland to be followed some time later by other family members; the helping network of the extended family, and the lower economic position that the newest migrants occupy. This is all vital information that the social work student needs in order to work effectively with the Hispanic community. This material is not the domain of Sociology Minority Relations courses, but our subject matter as well.

Having been introduced to the social and economic background and concerns of the clients in the Casos, the student is prepared to focus on the brief panoramic view of an Hispanic minority group in the United States presented in the Cuadros.

The Cuadro opens with interviews with several Puerto Ricans who offer a variety of responses to the question "Por qué vinieron?" :

☐ ***Héctor Vega***

Llegó en 1959, dueño de un restaurante en el barrio hispano de Harlem, 48 años.

"Mire, el día que yo llegué a esta ciudad tan fría y tan sucia, decidí esto no es pa'* mí, yo me regreso ya. Pero, sabe, mi primo, Manny, me lo tenía todo arreglao*. Él trabajaba de *busboy* en "Las noches tropicales", un restaurante, y había hablao* con su *boss*, y me tenía un puesto en la cocina. Además, no me quedaba ni un chavo*, me lo había gastao* todo en el pasaje*. Bueno, eso fue hace veinticinco años, y aquí me tiene todavía. Pero, sabe, a veces me pongo a pensar de mi pueblo y me duele aquí"... (señalándose al corazón).

para
arreglado
hablado
cent
gastado/*fare*

☐ ***Aida Colón***

Llegó en 1969, costurera en Washington Heights, 55 años.

"Uy, eso fue hace tiempo. Es que primero vino mi tía Carmencita y su familia. Allá yo empecé a trabajar. Tengo buenas manos para esto. Mi tía me pidió porque aquí pagaban más y ella no quería que una muchachita como yo no viera más mundo. Bueno, ya me ve, soy operaria* y como puedo sacar las piezas bien seguiditas*, me gano mis buenos chavos".

sewing machine operator/rapidly

☐ ***Jorge Luis Delgado***

Llegó en 1977, psiquiatra en Manhattan, 31 años.

"Al terminar mis estudios de medicina vine para seguir mi especialización en psiquiatría. Al principio me hallaba bien extraño* aquí, pero poco a poco he venido a gozar verdaderamente no sólo de las oportunidades profesionales que se me brindan* aquí, sino también de las actividades culturales y el ámbito* tan libre en el cual puede uno realizarse* aquí".

felt very strange
offer
environment
fulfill

☐ ***Luis Dávila***

Llegó en 1983, desempleado en el Lower East Side de Manhattan, 23 años.

"Uno piensa que todo va a ser mejor aquí, que si se trabaja puede uno tener unos chavos. Pero qué va, llevo cinco meses buscando y nada. A veces consigo un trabajito por ahí, pero eso es apenas* para poder darle algo a mi hermana y cuñado* que me están ayudando. Yo no sé, aquí la situación está muy mala. Mejor me vuelvo pa' allá; por lo menos no se muere uno de frío".

hardly/brother-in-law

Here again, the authentic register of the language is retained to give practice in the recognition and comprehension of the language spoken by different Puerto Ricans. The interviews are followed by a brief historical review, and by political and ecomomic information. The *Cuadro* contains abundant illustrations in the form of maps, photos and *realia* that graphically illustrate the subject matter. The maps are especially important because of the relatively poor knowledge of geography of today's students. Cuadro I starts out by locating Puerto Rico geographically before going on to discuss the historical and political reality of the Island. Basic information such as this is necessary for the many who do not know that Puerto Ricans are U.S. citizens, and that travelling from San Juan to New York City is the same as going from Chicago to New York. All you need is the ticket.

The final section of the unit is the *Reflejos culturales*, which consists of selections of the work of contemporary poets and song-writers. These works have been chosen as the artistic expression of topics or issues that appear in the *Cuadro* or *Casos*.

The song "*El negrito bonito*" by Roy Brown, expresses the cycle of migration of the Puerto Rican campesino within the Island , and to the mainland:

El negrito bonito

El Negrito Bonito se va pa' San Juan,
Buscando trabajo, buscando más pan,
No sabe en serio qué va hacer,
Pero esto sí sabe, no va a volver
    A picar° la caña en la llamarada,°
    Luchando con nada, sin saber porqué.

Acaba en Relincho buscando a Jacinto
Encuentra al compay° tirado° en la calle
y hablándole de cosas que no se pueden ver,
Diciendo entre baba,° "No voy a volver
A picar la caña ... "

El Negrito Bonito no encuentra trabajo,
Está dolombrado,° se siente muy bajo.
Un tipo muy listo le dice al bonito
Que allá en Nueva York, todo es mejor.
No se pica caña, no hay llamarada
No se lucha con nada, sin saber porqué.

El Negrito Bonito no encuentra abrigo.
Se siente acosado,° se muere de frío.
Allá en Nueva York, donde todo es mejor,
Se siente gimiendo,° "Fe estoy perdiendo
Aunque no se pica caña ..."

Acaba en Relincho El Negrito Bonito,
Buscando al compay, tirado en la calle,
Y hablándole de cosas que no se pueden ver,
Diciendo entre baba, "No voy a volver
A picar la caña ... "

One could refer to many other examples, such as the poetry of the Nuyorican, Martín Espada. His poem " Mrs. Baez serves coffee on the third floor" underscores the Puerto Ricans' hospitality even in the midst of devastation. The porcelain cup becomes the symbol of a people who survive inspite of poverty,discrimination,and dislocation.

Another aspect of the culture of the Puerto Rican comes across in the poetry of Rosario Morales. She makes clear the all-powerful role of the mother in this culture when she reminds us:

> I say "ai mami,ai mami", giving birth.[2]

These few examples illustrate how literature can be a significant part of a more pragmatic subject matter.

I believe that the holistic approach of The Total Package, the integration of the linguistic,professional and cultural requisites of a Spanish for Special Purposes course will help provide students with the cultural skills necessary to provide culturally sensitive services to Hispanic youth and families.

Notes

* All quotes on the *Casos*,*Cuadros*, and *Reflejos culturales* are from Mireya Pérez-Erdélyi and Gene S.Kupferschmid,*Carreras:Casos en la comunidad* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1985).

[1] Martín Espada, *The Immigrant Iceboy's Bolero* (Massachusetts: Cordillera Press, 1984), 1-3.

[2] Rosario Morales,"Poema" (*Areíto*,VIII,No.29,24).

A NON-TRADITIONAL APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF URBAN SPANISH AND CARIBBEAN LITERATURE

By

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A Non-Traditional Approach to the Teaching of Urban Spanish and Caribbean Literature

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The Master of Arts Program in Bilingual/Bicultural Studies (Spanish) at La Salle University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, arose out of the need to provide urban professionals in education, business, medicine, law enforcement, social work, and pastoral counseling with an alternative to traditional graduate programs in Spanish focused exclusively on Peninsular or Latin American literature. After three years of careful planning, the La Salle Program was inaugurated in September of 1982 as a multidisciplinary experience with components in urban Spanish; history; cross-cultural communications; Caribbean literature, art and music; and the methodology of teaching English to speakers of other languages. The Program is unique in that it allows for three tracks of students: Track I is for educators, school counselors, and Spanish and ESOL teachers; Track II, for nurses, police officers, social workers, and other urban professionals, including people from the business community; and Track III, for non-degree matriculants. I am concerned here, however, not with the overall structure of the program but rather with two of the courses: Urban Spanish and Caribbean literature.

The Urban Spanish segment of La Salle University's Program actually comprises five courses--Urban Spanish I through V--designed to give the urban professional the greatest possible exposure to the kind of technical or practical Spanish he or she needs in a chosen profession. To remain pertinent to the Spanish speaking population of Philadelphia and other urban centers of the Northeast, the courses in Urban Spanish incorporate, moreover, the pronunication and lexical variants of Caribbean Spanish, especially as spoken by Puerto Ricans.[1] The flexibility of the Program allows students who have never studied Spanish before the opportunity to begin language study in Urban Spanish I; more skilled students can be placed in the more advanced Urban Spanish III and IV courses; and Track I students--educators, school counselors, and teachers--are able to take two special courses in Spanish for educators. The Urban Spanish III course is particularly demanding since it is taught during the Spring Immersion, a 5 week intensive during which the students attend language class 4 evenings per week for a period of 1 and 1/2 hours.

The common text for the Urban Spanish I-IV courses is Basic Spanish Grammar, which in fact is the nucleus of a complete language course with supplementary manuals, tapes, and workbooks. The text presents Spanish grammar clearly and economically. The workbooks--which combine situational dialogues, dialogue completion exercises, question-answer exchanges, group activities, and technical vocabulary study--parallel the text and stress the practical application and use of Spanish in the following professions: business and finance, law enforcement, medicine, teaching, social work, and communications. The special materials La Salle professors use for pastoral Spanish are equally practical.[2]

The courses in Urban Spanish give the greatest attention to developing good listening and speaking skills in Spanish but demand as well a high level of reading and writing proficiency. To facilitate comprehension and oral communication in Spanish, the courses are taught by native Caribbeans, assisted by native informants of Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Guatemalan origin who are thoroughly familiar with the pronunciation variants, intonation patterns, and lexicon of Caribbean speakers. Since most of the students who enter the program presently work or expect to work with Caribbeans, especially Puerto Ricans, the contribution of the native informants to the vitality of language instruction at La Salle cannot be underestimated. It is they who, under the guidance of the professors with whom they work, are able to work with Anglo students on an individual basis to help them master the complex rhythms and sound patterns of Caribbean Spanish. In addition, tape recorders, video cassettes, short wave radios, and the facilities of the language laboratory are all used to reinforce language learning on each level of Urban Spanish.

The Urban Spanish I-III courses integrate a variety of effective strategies. Instructors generally devote 1 hour of their 3 hour class period to presenting and working with the grammar concepts from the basic text. During this segment, they make ample use of pattern practice, dialogue completion, direct method, and proficiency-based techniques.[3] During the second segment of the class period (also about 1 hour), students work in small groups with their instructor and the native informants on the material and technical vocabulary in the workbook which corresponds to their career interests. To maintain continuity, the workbook material is arranged to coincide with the lesson presented during the first hour of the class period. By individualizing instruction, the instructor and the native informants are able to work closely with each student on any problems associated with the material. During the last hour of class time, students re-group for spontaneous or directed conversation and response to situational exercises pertinent to their careers or of general interest.

After they complete the basic grammar text and workbook materials in Urban Spanish IV, students then begin cultural readers and primary sources related to an advanced review grammar book, which they carry over to and complete in Urban Spanish V. The readers deal with Hispanic culture and are intended to help the student relate cultural themes of interest to Spanish speaking peoples to their own professions. The selections in the reader include examples of excellent articles from Spanish journals and magazines, graded in difficulty from moderately complex to very advanced.

The selections in the readers correspond to parallel chapters in the advanced review grammar text. The chapters of the text are divided into the following four sections: (1) a reading section included to facilitate comprehension and encourage discussion in Spanish; (2) a question section formulated to help the students make comparisons between their own culture and that of Hispanic peoples; (3) a vocabulary section; and (4) a special affective activities section designed to elicit sutdent participation in media role-playing, decision-making and problem solving situations, and interviewing.

The reading comprehension selections for Urban Spanish IV and V, both in the readers and the advanced grammar book, serve to motivate the student to initiate stimulating conversation in Spanish and to develop informed opinions about many aspects of Hispanic culture. For example, there are units on values and the Hispanic family, and there is even a unit on the significance of _espiritismo_ among Caribbeans. Yet another chapter describes a typical _botánica_--like those that are so prominent in the _barrios_ of New York City, Philadelphia, and other urban centers--in which one can buy the candles, incense, and other objects used in _espiritista_ practice.

Students in the Urban Spanish sections are evaluated by both written and oral examinations. The oral examinations are generally given by two professors who are likely to first interview the student in Spanish and then ask questions about issues that pertain to career interests or Hispanics. The written examinations are based on the grammar book, the material in the workbooks, the readers, and the advanced grammar book. The Urban Spanish I-III examinations incorporate situational dialogues related to the various professions represented by the students in the class. Thus, a nurse might be asked to write a situational dialogue of a specified length about an accident victim in the emergency room of the hospital who needs immediate surgery to save his life, or a police officer might be asked to devise a dialogue about a runaway adolescent found alone in a dangerous area of the city late at night. Practical in orientation, the examinations are challenging and require thorough familiariazation with the specialized vocabularies presented in the workbooks.

The second course which I shall describe--the course in Caribbean literature--was planned to reinforce the bilingual-bicultural orientation of the entire program. The reading list for the course consists of representative work in drama, the essay, the novel, and poetry by eminent writers from Puerto Rico, Cuba, and Colombia. Two works in particular--Pedro Juan Soto's Spiks and poet Miguel Algarín's anthology, Nuyorican Poetry--are wonderful socio-literary documents for the study of Caribbean Spanish and Spanglish, as well as for the analysis of the many social problems, including poverty and unemployment, drug addiction, alcoholism, social alienation, discrimination, and crime, which plague the Puerto Ricans of New York City's

Spanish Harlem. Other works, such as Luis Rafael Sánchez's La pasión según Antígona Pérez and Alejo Carpentier's Recurso del método (translated into English as Reasons of State) deal with the politics of oppression and dictatorship in Latin America. Cien años de soledad (One Hundred Years of Solitude), by the Nobel laureate Garbriel García Márquez, is an invaluable source for the study of the culture of Colombia and the Caribbean basin. In connection with this work, students view and are responsible for the contents of a filmed interview in Spanish with Márquez entitled "La magia de lo real."

Unlike traditional literature courses which stress literary theory, stylistics, and structural analysis, Caribbean literature in La Salle's M.A. Program stresses a socio-cultural approach to literature and literary history. For example, students not only learn the trajectory of Puerto Rico's literary history with the many trends that characterize it, but also study the socio-cultural connections between contemporary works and past litebrary expressions. They come to see, for example, that the issue of cultural conflict, so prominent in Soto's Spiks, even appears in Columbus' letters on the discovery of the New World.

Most innovatively, the course in Caribbean literature maintains a bilingual format throughout. Lectures and class discussions are conducted in both Spanish and English, and the students do most of their reading assignments in bilingual editions, except for One Hundred Years of Solitude and Reasons of State, which they may elect to read in either the Spanish or the English editions. Hispanics who would profit from reading an English translation to test their comprehension of a long work are encouraged to read both novels in English; Anglos, on the other hand, who are ready to do so are asked to read the same novels in the Spanish editions. All students read Sánchez's La pasión según Antígona Pérez in Spanish.

The bilingual format in Caribbean literature requires a skillful presentation and demands that the instructor devise and implement techniques to improve cross-cultural communication, bilingualism, and bicultural understanding. One such technique that has proved useful involves recapitulation in either English or Spanish. The instructor may call on a student to summarize in English the main points of a presentation in Spanish, or he may ask one student to reinforce in English another student's analysis in Spanish of a specific literary passage. The dynamic interplay between Spanish and English (or vice versa) is integral to the course, and both Anglo and Hispanic students alike who have experienced it claim to have gained a better understanding of the problems of cross-cultural communication and the rewards of bilingualism. The bilingual format also allows the professor to intervene when a student is giving an answer in either language to make corrections. Students rapidly learn the value of immediate feedback from the professor and generally respond to questions and corrections in an uninhibited manner. The interactions between Anglo and Hispanic students is especially important in Caribbean literature. Besides assessing what one student or another has to say about the assigned reading material, Anglos and Hispanics seem to learn to read each other's intonation patterns and non-verbal cues better. In short, the course becomes a kind of workshop for putting into practice concepts about communication discussed in the course in cross-cultural communication.

Students in Caribbean literature are evaluated on the basis of their class participation, mid-semester and final examinations, and term paper. The examinations consist of essay-type questions in English and Spanish on the readings. In keeping with the emphasis of the course, the questions stress either the sociological or political implications of the themes discussed in the readings during the semester. Students are encouraged to identify with each work and to take on its world view, so to speak, as if it were their own. Having done so, few, for example, would fail to respond with sensitivity to the great affirmation of human dignity and forceful outcry against social injustice so evident in Soto's Spiks and Alagarín's anthology, Nuyorican Poetry.

The Urban Spanish courses and the course in Caribbean literature in La Salle University's M.A. Program may be viewed as innovative, non-traditional experiences whose purpose, in addition to presenting a specific body of knowledge in a given subject, is to maximize bilingualism and bicultural understandings within the framework of a multidisciplinary course of study. Urban Spanish and Caribbean literature enhance each other and can be taught so as to address, without sacrificing quality, the needs and interests of students who are searching for a practical approach to the use of Spanish in various professions. The scope of the Program, it seems to me, is at once a virtue and an expression of the integration of diverse disciplines in a coherent and meaningful way.

Notes

[1] As of 1980, about 116,280 persons of Spanish origin were reported to be living in Philadelphia and environs. In the City of Philadelphia, there were more than 60,000 Caribbeans in 1980, some 73% of whom were from Puerto Rico. There is every indication that the numbers have increased. See: Section 1 of 2, P-171, of the census tracts for Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area in the 1980 Census of Population and Housing, published by the United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of Statistics, 1983.

[2] For a recent assessment of the need for Spanish speaking clergymen and women in the Catholic Church, the reader may wish to consult the following pastoral letter prepared by the National Conference of Catholic Bishops: The Hispanic Presence: Challenge and Commitment (Washington: United States Catholic Conference, 1984).

[3] See: Theodore V. Higgs, ed., Teaching for Proficiency, the Organizing Principle (Lincolnwood, Illinois: National Textbook Company, 1984).

SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS

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SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS

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The University of New Mexico

May, 1985

I would like to give you an introduction to the area of the United States where I come from. The University of New Mexico is located in Albuquerque. This pretty city, the largest in the State of New Mexico, has a population of approximately 450,000 and a high percentage of monolingual Spanish speaking population. The State of New Mexico is situated next to the Mexican border, therefore, trading, travel, tourism, educational exchanges, sister city programs and communications in general with our Southern neighbor are carried out intensively and have primary importance for our state.

Better communication networks have made the world smaller, increasing the needs for trade, technological exchanges and exploitation of resources; activities that imply knowledge of foreign languages. Modern communications and exchanges cannot take place and be effective without the ability to communicate properly and individuals who do know a foreign language are increasingly becoming a welcome asset in the marketplace.

All these considerations played a significant role when the Latin American Institute decided to develop Spanish for Professionals in 1981. Then and now, the purpose of the program is to respond to community needs for bilingual personnel in the fields of health care, law, business and education. We want Spanish for Professionals to be a workable alternative to traditional language courses, where the student will be able to find the necessary tools to enable him/her to communicate effectively with Spanish speakers in New Mexico and abroad.

The most important consideration for a program of this type is to keep in mind that the needs of a professional are totally different from those of a regualr college student. The individual, already participating in the work force, must have courses fitted to his/her schedule. Course requirements are planned in such a way to make the program attractive to individuals who need a foreign language, but find it very difficult to attend traditional language courses, which are offered during working hours. Even if regular language courses are offered in the late afternoon or evening, they are not designed for the working professional, who is not particularly interested on interminable drilling, conjugating verbs or on emphasis on written work, but who mainly needs to learn the communicative aspects of the language.

When the program first appeared in the Fall Semester of 1981, it was entitled Spanish and Portuguese for Professionals and consisted of ten Spanish classes: three sections for medical personnel, two sections for lawyers, two business sections; commercial correspondance, law enforcement and public administration with one section each. There was also one class of Portuguese for Business, that was offered only then. (Appendix 1)

The initial response to the program was unevenly divided among the courses. The medical class generated the highest interest coming mainly from area hospitals. The School of Nursing at the University of New Mexico expressed interest in granting elective nursing credit for this course once their faculty and curriculum became well established. This joint effort is still on the planning table.

During the early stages of development, funding for the program was the main concern. Money was provided in part by the Latin American Institute under the language outreach category of its federal designation as a National Resource Center in Area Studies, that is under Title VI Federal Higher Education Act. These funds were allocated by the federal government with the understanding that theywould be used for planning, community outreach and implementation of innovative programs in language and literature. But these fund were not enough. If they were used without a suplementary income from other sources, the program could only be offered on alternate semesters and not through the academic year, making it impossible to establish a firm foundation among the professional community in the area. Therefore, other sources of funding had to be actively sought, mainly co-sharing costs with interested departments: the Schools of Business, Law, Medicine, and the Department of Modern and Classical Languages.

The only positive response, at that point, came from the Department of Modern and Classical Languages which was willing to provide instructors for courses which the Institute was unable to fund. This arrangement would benefit them in terms of undergraduate enrollment, qualifying the department to receive more teaching assistanships from the College of Arts and Sciences. The incrment of teaching assistanships at the undergraduate levels would increase enrollment on graduate courses. In other words, this department was willing to absorb any components of the program which prove to be successful.

The following semester, Spring 1982, the Language Department funded one teaching assistant for the medical class. The budget for the 1982-1983 academic year, including the Department of Modern and Classical Languages' share, was $9,600 out of which $6,770 went to pay the salaries of six instructors; $3,000 for the coordinator's salary who was working only one quarter time and the total sum spent came to $9,770, without including expenses for class materials or publicity. The program was in the red just spending on bare essentials such as teachers and a supervisor.

In the 1982 Spring Semester our program showed an enrollment of 102 students. One should bear in mind that these were students who would not ordinarily enroll in Spanish courses, hence, we were being successful in reaching a previously untapped population in spite of our meager resources. In addition, if one multiplies three credit hours by 102 students, in only one semester 306 credit hours were added to the previous number of Spanish credit classes. If the enrollments for the Fall Semester 1982 were comparble to those in the Spring, it was assumed that 135 additional credit hours would be generated as a direct result of this program. Plans were in progress to integrate Spanish for Professionals into the curriculum of the Department of Modern and Classical Languages. Whenever possible teaching assistants would teach the classes and resposibilities for coordination and for teaching practicum would rest with the Latin American Institute,

The goals were to mantain enrollment at 10-15 students per section in courses currently offered and to expand the offerings to include other professional areas such as education, city and state employees, Efforts were also under way to integrate Spanish for Public Administrators with a general Masters degree in that department as well as, Spanish for Medical Personnel as a part of the School of Nursing curriculum. Both courses would have been offered as electives.

The reasoning behind these liasons with professional schools on campus was sound regarding co-sharing costs, but many departments perceived these courses as too vocational and were hesitant to take the step of integrating them into their regular curricula. These plans failed and different approaches had to be found and developed in order to keep the prgram alive and in good standings.

On the one hand, the main reason for developing these non-traditional courses was to meet community needs for trained bilingual personnel. Therefore integrating these classes into the professional schools within the university meant a defeat of the primary objectives of the program, because enrollments would come from regular college students and not from the community we were seeking to serve.

Budget was still the main concern. Since the purpose was to offer a high quality program; salaries dor instructors should be attractive enough to draw professional and experienced teachers into the team and to retain them. The pay per semester course is $1,400, the highest offered to part-time faculty at the University of New Mexico.

At this point the Latin American Institute decided to contact the Division of Continuing Education and Community Services at the University of New Mexico, in order to announce our courses in their catalog which is distributed city wide by the local paper, use their community contacts and their publicity resources.

Arrangements with Continuing Education covered co-sharing in salaries for instructors. The Division would pay $975.00 per 3 hour credit course with enrollment of 15; 16 or more students would raise the amount paid per course to $1,200. For fewer students (10) the pay would go down to $690.00 and the Latin American Institute would pay the difference. These arrangements would allow the Institute to offer the program throughout the academic year. Spanish for Professionals courses should have full enrollments in order to make the arrangement worthwhile. Students would pay regular university tuition of $32.00 per credit hour, including non-residents. These classes would count for UNM's elective credit.

Spanish for Professionals started with business, law and medical classes carrying 277 and 278 numbers. They are taught at the intermediate level for students with prior knowledge of the language; therefore, excluding potential students who had never had language training, but needed it on their jobs. Such students represented an untapped sector of the community, as well as, a sound possibility not only to increase enrollments, but also to enable us to expand the program upon real basis.

For the Spring Semester 1983, a couple of new courses were added to the program. These classes carried a 120 number and were designed for beginners with no prior language training. These courses are feeders for the intermediate classes and will assure a steady enrollment. Since 120 courses count for teacher recertification credit for the State Education Department, they will attract teachers form the Albuquerque Public Schools System (APS) into the program.

Communication is the main emphasis in these courses, together with basic grammatical patterns to enable the student to communicate with others in specific settings from the start. The teaching of meaningful professional terminology will provide the students with the necessary tools to achieve effective communication with Spanish speakers.

As of January 1983, enrollments were high enough to warrant the opening of a third section of Spanish 120. There were 15, 20 and 21 students rescpectively and 277 and 278 courses also showed full enrollments.

As projected the bulk of the enrollment for the beginning classes came from APS; but also attending were federal and state employees, travel agents, banking and insurance personnel. Finally the program was reaching the community.

As the semester was coming to a close, students of the 120 sections asked for a follow-up course with conversational emphasis before entering the specialized classes, and Spanish 207 Workshop in Intermediate Conversational Spanish was born. Since then Spanish 120 and 207 have become permanent features in the Spanish for Professionals program. Appendix 2)

Enrollments for the Fall Semester 1984 were steady, although organizational problems with the Division of Continuing Education were surfacing and were also threatening the existence of the program. According to the arrangements between the Latin American Institute and the Division of Continuing Education, the latter will provide classrooms, separate inserts for the program in their catalog and flyers announcing the courses for general distribution.

It turned out that the separate inserts were not done, and our courses were placed in an obscured section of the Catalog (Appendix 3) The flyers were not only late, but blurry and containing wrong and confusing information. (Appendix 4) Classrooms were located on campus which always has a cronic parking problem. As if all these difficulties were not enough, the instructors were getting their first pay chack a week after mid-term, causing a great deal of discouragement and dissatisfaction. On the other hand our enrollments were declining, because prospective students were turned off by the parking situation on campus and by the misinformation of the publicity.

When I was appointed as program coordinator on July, 1984 I was confronted with this state of affairs. At that time there was a series of problems beyond my control and these problems were causing me an enormous amount of frustration, in particular when I checked the enrollments for the Fall Semester 1984. Only four courses survived with one section each: Spanish 120, Spanish 207, Spanish 277 (Business) and Spanish 278 (Medical)

Something had to be done and fast. Restructuring the program became my first priority. The salary problem had to be addressed and solved at once if I wanted to retain the instructors. I proposed that the Latin American Institute pay the first half of our share and have the Division of Continuing Education pay the second and refund us for any extra amount paid. In this manner, instructors would receive their first payment within four weeks instead of 11 or 12. This proposal was approved as were other meassures taken in order to regain direct management of the program. My additional suggestions were as follows: to reserve our own classrooms by contacting APS and use their locations for the late afternoon classes, thus, avoiding the parking situation on campus. I also proposed to write our own publicity, news releases and to design new flyers for general mailing and distribution. (Appendix 5) Another suggestion that proved to be very valuable was to establish contacts with APS, which is one of the largest educational systems in the nation and also one with a high percentage of monolingual -Spanish speaking population. For this reason administrators, counselors, nurses , teachers and staff at APS needed specialized language instruction to up-grade their communicative skills to better serve parents and students. These contacts have produced the following results:

a) The development of curriculum for Spanish for Educators, a new course for the Spanish for Professionals block,

b) a Summer Institute for APS Spanish teachers with courses in methodology, curriculum development and language instruction. Spanish for Educators will cover the language component of the Summer Institute and will be offered for four hour daily and for four weeks using a team-teaching approach with two instructors.

Spanish for Educators will make its debut this Summer and depending upon student's response, field experimentation and other combined factors, this course will be added to our regular offerings and taught during the academic year on a regular basis.

These liasons with APS have already produced a substantial increase in enrollments. This semester Spanish for Professionals has two full sections of beginners, one full section of intermediate, 15 students in the business class and 12 in the Medical. For the first time in the short existence of this program, two instructors qualified to receive the top salary of $1,200 from the Division of Continuing Education, which means that the Latin American Institute will pay only $200.00 for each one of these classes, this represents considerable savings in our budget, money that could be employed in improving publicity.

In order to reach the highest possible number of business involved in international trade within the Albuquerque area, a questionnaire was developed to find out the real needs for a foreign language and, secondly I hope this questionnaire will help me to improve promotion, to increase interest and enrollments for the program. (Appendix 6) As soon as the responses arrive and the results are tallied I will be able to tailor appropriate course contents to fulfill the needs of this very important sector of our state's economy. Another direct result of this survey will be the possibility of increasing the number of regular course offerings, as well as, to develop new ones. Once real needs are identified the design and planning of courses and their objectives will have a realistic base.

Non-traditional language programs such as Spanish for Professionals are significant and meaninful because they fill a void not covered by traditional language courses; they extend university services to a wider sector of the population, besides increasing the number of credit hours in the language curriculum, and not to speak of the additional income received as a direct result of this program.

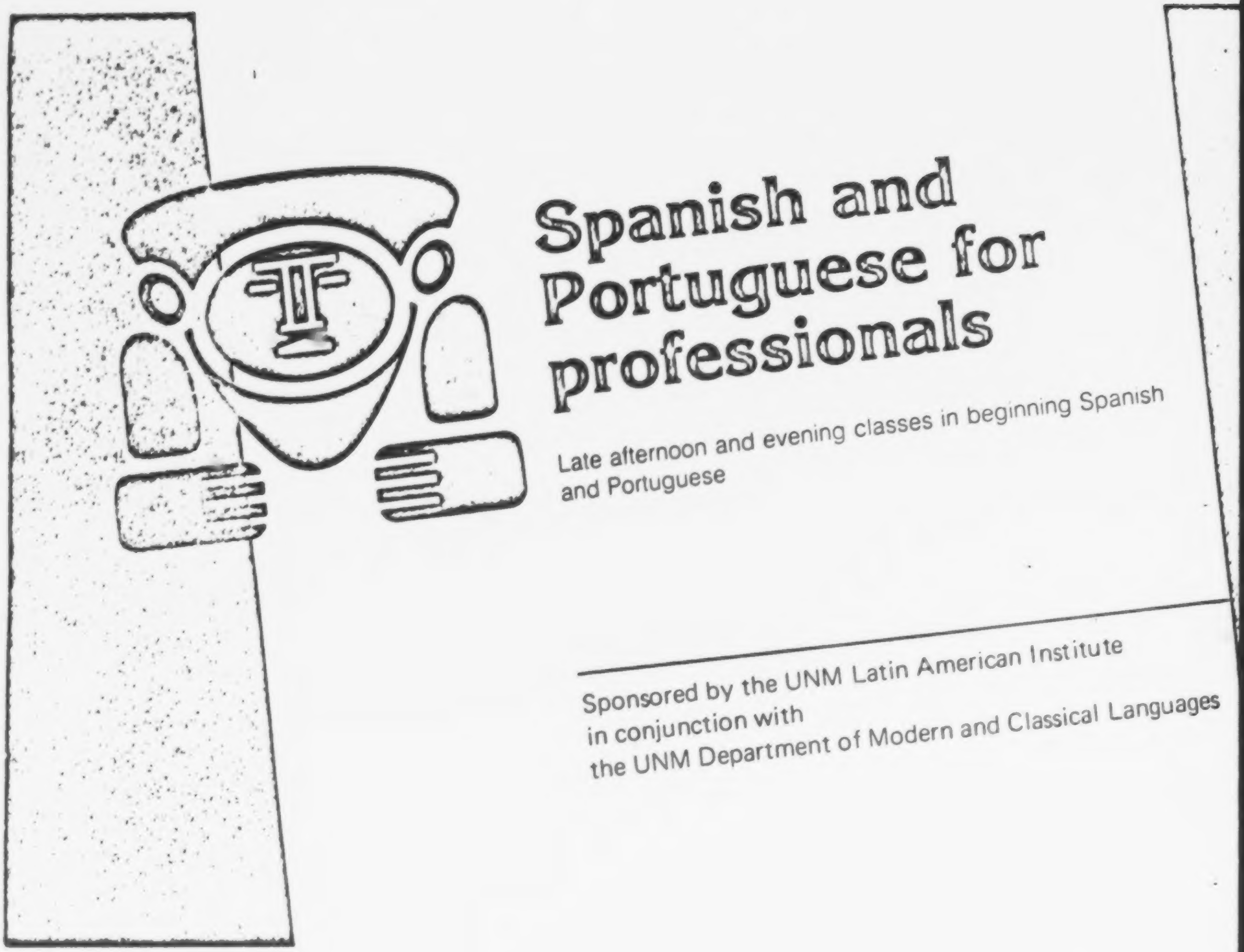
Although the difficulties are many, as we have seen, the future of these non-traditional programs is bright because the need for them is very real. In order to overcome the many obstacles the straightest road to follow is that of aggressive publicity together with high quality teaching. These means will effectively reach the highest possible number of professionals who do need to learn a foreign language. Publicity helps the program to acquire visibility in the community and by offering high quality courses, the program slowly gains a solid reputation,

It is my firm belief that programs such as Spanish for Professionals are a good resource to promote public relations and communications between the University of New Mexico, the business community and the general population of the state that supports higher education through their taxes.

Thank you for your attention.

Question and answer period.

APPENDIX 1



Spanish and Portuguese for professionals

Late afternoon and evening classes in beginning Spanish and Portuguese

Sponsored by the UNM Latin American Institute
in conjunction with
the UNM Department of Modern and Classical Languages

APPENDIX 1

Spanish and Portuguese for professionals

Spanish and Portuguese for Professionals is a series of courses in beginning Spanish and Portuguese created to meet the growing need for bilingual personnel in such professional fields as health care, law, journalism, law enforcement, and business.

The program is designed to help those currently involved in these fields, as well as those preparing for careers, to communicate effectively with Spanish and Portuguese speakers both here and abroad.

The courses are taught by qualified instructors from the UNM Latin American Institute and the UNM Department of Modern and Classical Languages. Each course carries three hours of UNM credit.

SPANISH			
277 002	Lawyers	M-W	6:00-7:15
277 003	Medical Personnel	M-W-F	1:00-1:50
277 004	Business	To be Arranged	
277 005	Commercial Correspondence	T-T	6:00-7:15
277-006	Medical	T-T	5:30-6:45
278-003	Lawyers	T-T	6:00-7:15
278-004	Law Enforcement	M-W	6:00-7:15
278 005	Business	M-W	7:00-8:15
278 006	Medical	T-T	5:30-6:45
~~551 020~~	Public Administrators	M-W	6:30-7:45
PORTUGUESE			
301 002	Business	M-W-F	12:00-12:50

Program Director: Jon M. Tolman, Associate Director for Academic Affairs, Latin American Institute

Program Coordinator: Karen Ruffing

For further information contact:
Latin American Institute
801 Yale NE
The University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, NM 87131
Tel. 277-2961

APPENDIX 2

Spanish for professionals

Following are Spanish courses offered for Spring semester 1984 which have been created to meet the need for bilingual personnel in such professional fields as law and health care. These courses are designed to help those currently involved in such fields, as well as those preparing for such careers, to communicate effectively with Spanish speakers.

These courses are offered by the Division of Continuing Education and Community Services in cooperation with the UNM Latin American Institute and the sponsoring department. They are taught by qualified instructors from the Institute and the UNM Department of Modern and Classical Languages. Each course carries three hours of undergraduate credit.

Spring semester begins January 16, 1984, and ends May 11, 1984. Tuition is $32.25 per credit hour for resident and part-time students. Students may register at UNM Continuing Education or at Bandelier East Registration Center. For further information on course content, please contact the Latin American Institute at 277-2961. For further registration information, please contact UNM Continuing Education, Resident Extension, 277-2931.

SPAN 120-400	WORKSHOP IN CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH, 03 cr. hrs. Meets Mondays and Wednesdays, 4:30-5:45 pm, Albuquerque High School. Designed for students with no prior background in Spanish. May not be used to satisfy language requirements.
SPAN 120-401	WORKSHOP IN CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH, 03 cr. hrs. Meets Tuesdays and Thursdays, 4:00-5:15 pm, Albuquerque High School. Description as above, with special emphasis for classroom teachers.
SPAN 207-400	CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH, 03 cr. hrs. Meets Mondays and Wednesdays, 4:30-5:45 pm, Albuquerque High School. A continuation of Spanish 120. Also open to newcomers with some prior beginning level coursework in Spanish. For the intermediate level student.
SPAN 278-400	SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (LEGAL), 03 cr. hrs. Meets Tuesdays and Thursdays, 6:00-7:15 pm, UNM Law School Room 2403. Intermediate level course designed to help students develop a working vocabulary related to immigration, civil and criminal law. The main objective of this course is to develop the necessary skills to interview clients and to translate and interpret legal documents.
SPAN 278-401	SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (MEDICAL), 03 cr. hrs. Meets Mondays and Wednesdays, 6:30-7:45 pm, Mitchell Hall 206. Intermediate level course designed to develop conversational skills, taking health histories, performing physical examinations, understanding and using basic medical vocabulary based on specialties and preferences of class participants.

UNM

DIVISION OF CONTINUING EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICES

H ED 293-401, T/STRESS MANAGEMENT FOR STUDENTS
01 cr. hr. Meets W, 4:30-6:15pm, Ortega 219, MARCH 18-MAY 10 ONLY.
A special interest topics course dealing with relief of the stress of college life. Undergraduate credit only.

H ED 493-401, T/HEALTH PROMOTION STRATEGIES FOR THE WORKPLACE
03 cr. hrs. Meets S, 9-12 noon, Ortega 107.
A special interest topics course designed to examine several health promotion strategies for the adult population. Programs include exercise, stress management, nutrition, weight control, smoking cessation, hypertension control, traffic safety, etc. Undergraduate or graduate credit.

H ED 493-402, T/STRESS MANAGEMENT
03 cr. hrs. Meets T, 6:30-9:15pm, Ortega 123.
A special interest topics course designed to help cope with the stress of everyday life. Undergraduate or graduate credit.

H ED 493-403, T/WELLNESS A WAY OF LIFE
01 cr. hr. Meets T, 6:30-9:15pm, Marron Hall 116, MARCH 16-APRIL 23 ONLY.
Participants will learn the five components of wellness (self-responsibility, fitness, nutrition, stress management and environmental sensitivity) as they pertain to daily lifestyle choices regarding personal health. Undergraduate or graduate credit.

JOURN 332-400, WRITING THE MAGAZINE ARTICLE
03 cr. hrs. Meets W, 6:30-9:15pm, Marron Hall 116.
How to write and sell fiction and non-fiction to magazines today. PREREQUISITE: permission of instructor. Undergraduate credit only.

PE 124-400 (M)/124-401 (W), BALLROOM DANCE
01 cr. hr. Meets T and TH, 5:15-6:30pm, SUB Basement.
Instruction in the basic movements of the fox trot, waltz, lindy, rhumba, tango, and cha-cha. Undergraduate credit only.

P E 125-400 (M)/125-401 (W), INTERMEDIATE BALLROOM DANCE
01 cr. hr. Meets T and TH, 6:45-8pm, SUB Basement.
Instruction dependent upon experience of students in basic movements of all segments of ballroom dance. Undergraduate credit only.

P E 185-400, BICYCLING
01 cr. hr. Meets W, 3-4:30pm, Carlisle Gym 115.
Instruction in bicycle maintenance, safety, speed trail riding and touring; includes speed trials and tours of various distances. Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-400, T/ADVANCED BALLROOM DANCE
01 cr. hr. Meets T and TH, 8-9:15pm, SUB Basement.
Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-401, T/INTERMEDIATE KARATE
01 cr. hr. Meets M, W, F, 6-7pm, Carlisle Gym Arena.
Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-402, T/BEGINNING COUNTRY WESTERN DANCE
01 cr. hr. Meets M and W, 4-5pm, SUB Basement, MARCH 18-MAY 10 ONLY.
Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-403, T/INTERMEDIATE COUNTRY WESTERN DANCE
01 cr. hrs. Meets M and W, 5-6:15pm, SUB Basement, JANUARY 14-MARCH 8 ONLY.
Undergraduate credit only.

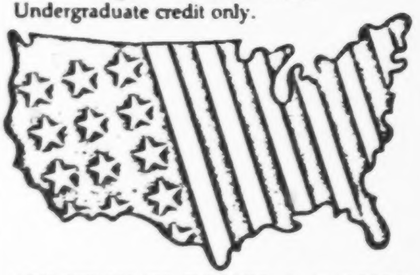
P E 193-404, T/BEGINNING COUNTRY WESTERN DANCE
01 cr. hrs. Meets M and W, 5-6:15pm, SUB Basement, JANUARY 14-MARCH 8 ONLY.
Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-405, T/INTERMEDIATE COUNTRY WESTERN DANCE
01 cr. hr. Meets M and W, 5-6:15pm, SUB Basement, MARCH 18-MAY 10 ONLY.
Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-406, T/WINDSURFING-INTERMEDIATE
02 cr. hrs. Meets W, 3-4pm, Carlisle Gym 101, PLUS ARRANGED, MARCH 18-MAY 10 ONLY. SPECIAL $25.00 FEE.
Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-407, T/WINDSURFING I
02 cr. hrs. Meets M, 4-5pm, Carlisle Gym 101, PLUS ARRANGED, MARCH 18-MAY 10 ONLY. SPECIAL $25.00 FEE.
Undergraduate credit only.

P E 193-409, T/WHITE WATER RAFTING
02 cr. hrs. Meets W, 4-5:30pm, Johnson Gym 154, PLUS ARRANGED, MARCH 18-MAY 10 ONLY. SPECIAL FEE WILL BE CHARGED FOR EQUIPMENT RENTAL.
Undergraduate credit only.



POL SCI 300-400, T/CENTRAL AMERICA AND THE U.S.
03 cr. hrs. Meets T, 6:30-9:15pm, Ortega Hall 147.
Designed to help the student understand the contemporary events in Central America and the involvement of the U.S. in this area. Undergraduate or graduate credit.

POL SCI 300-401/LATIN AM ST 497-400, T/PUBLIC POLICY—HUMAN RIGHTS AND REFUGEES
03 cr. hrs. Meets TH, 6:30-9:15pm, Ortega 147.
A special interest topics course. Undergraduate or graduate credit for POL SCI 300-401; undergraduate credit only for Lat Am St 497-400.

SPAN 120-400, W/CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH
03 cr. hrs. Meets M and W, 4:30-5:45pm, Ortega 243.
Designed for students with no prior background in Spanish. May not be used to satisfy language requirements. Undergraduate credit only.

SPAN 120-401, W/CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH
03 cr. hrs. Meets T and TH, 5-6:15pm, Ortega 106.
Description as above. Undergraduate credit only.

SPAN 207-400, CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH
03 cr. hrs. Meets M and W, 4:30-5:45pm, Ortega 247.
A continuation of Spanish 120; also open to newcomers with some prior beginning level coursework. Undergraduate credit only.

SPAN 277-400, SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (LEGAL)
03 cr. hrs. Meets T and TH, 6-7:15pm, Mitchell Hall 213.
Designed for legal personnel; intended to develop oral and written proficiency in Spanish to enable the student to communicate effectively with Spanish speakers in a legal setting. Undergraduate credit only.

SPAN 277-401, SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (BUSINESS)
03 cr. hrs. Meets T and TH, 6-7:15pm, Mitchell Hall 215.
Designed for students currently working in or contemplating a career in business. Primary emphasis on developing professional vocabulary and commercial correspondence. Undergraduate credit only.

SPAN 278-400, SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (MEDICAL)
03 cr. hrs. Meets M and W, 6:30-7:45pm, Ortega 123.
Designed for medical personnel with prior

knowledge of Spanish to prepare them to work in a health care setting with Spanish speaking patients. Undergraduate credit only.

SP COM 221-400, INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

03 cr. hrs. Meets W, 6:30-9:15pm, Geology 223.

Analysis and practice of communication variables in interpersonal relations and settings. Undergraduate credit only.

W ST 182-400, REDUCING MATH ANXIETY

02 cr. hrs. Meets M, 4:30-6:30pm, Marron Hall 116.

Explores "math aniexty" and its relationship to sex role stereotypes, and presents methods of coping with it. Offers individualized assessment of math needs and instruction in skills to reduce anxiety. Undergraduate credit only.

W ST 379-400, MEXICAN WOMEN IN THE U.S.

03 cr. hrs. Meets W, 6:30-9:15pm, Mitchell Hall 204.

Designed to study the position of the Mexican woman in American society today, including the societal structures with which she must deal. Under graduate credit only.

TELECOLLEGE 277-2931

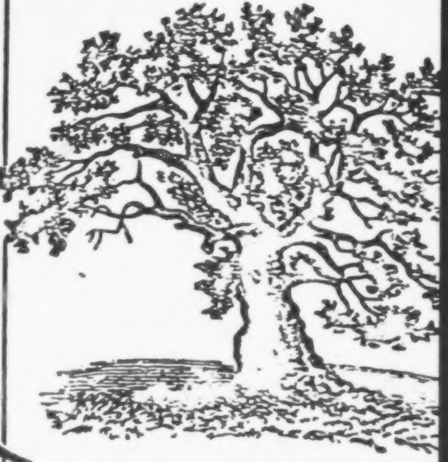
There's a new way for you to go to college. With television courses you can now earn college credits by studying at home.

TELECOLLEGE-TV CREDIT COURSES

TV credit courses are home-study courses wherein lessons are observed on TV at home, accompanied by textbook reading assignments and written assignments, thus enabling students to earn academic credits without on-campus course attendance. Midterm and final exams are standard and may be taken either on campus or by arrangement at convenient sites in the student's hometown area utilizing a proctor.

Aid to TeleCollege students is provided by an on-campus managing instructor. Student "telephone trees" are formed to allow participants the chance to exchange ideas and arrange joint study sessions.

Mandatory student orientation offers participants the opportunity to obtain specific TeleCollege information as well as course information. Information prior to the orientation may be obtained by phoning or writing UNM Telecollege. The phone number is 277-2931 and the mailing address is ... UNM Telecollege, 805 Yale NE, Albuquerque, New Mexico 87131.



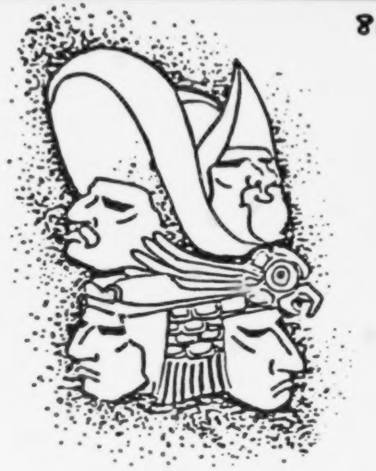
REGISTRATION INFORMATION

Telecourse Tuition Fee: $40 per credit hou for Extension Credit. Fees are due at registration. A check, money order, VISA, Maste Card or cash is accepted.

Registration and Purchase of Books Telecourse students are asked to formal register, pay tuition, and purchase books a UNM, Saturday Jan. 19, after their orientation session(s). For your convenience TeleCollege registrars will be stationed fro 10:30am to 12 noon in Woodward Hall #14 just next door to the orientation auditoriu Books can be purchased that same day.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Spanish for professionals



A series of courses developed for the working professional by the UNM Latin American Institute in cooperation with the UNM Division of Continuing Education and Community Serivces and the Department of Modern and Classical Languages.

SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (MEDICAL)

CLASS:	SPAN 278-401
DAYS:	MONDAYS AND WEDNESDAYS
TIME:	6:30-7:45 pm
DATES:	JANUARY 16-MAY 11, 1984
LOCATION:	UNM MITCHELL HALL 206
EMPHASIS:	SPANISH FOR MEDICAL PERSONNEL
REGISTRATION:	UNM CONTINUING EDUCATION OR UNM REGISTRATION CENTER
TUITION:	$96.75 for residents and part-time students
INSTRUCTOR:	RICARDO AVILA-CARBAJAL, 277-2961 (UNM Latin American Institute)

The University of New Mexico Division of Continuing Education and Community Services, in cooperation with the UNM Latin American Institute and the Department of Modern and Classical Languages, offers a Spanish for Medical Personnel course for Spring, 1984. This class is Spanish 278-401. It carries three credit hours of undergraduate credit.

This class has been desgined for medical personnel with some prior background in Spanish to prepare them to work in a health care setting with Spanish-speaking patients. The course emphasizes oral communication skills, with reading and writing as a lesser priority. Although medical terminology will be taught in the course, it will be based on language that is understandable to patients. Subject areas include Interviewing/Patient Histories, Physical Examination, Patient Education, Traditional Health Beliefs and Practices, Emergency Care/Accidents and Prevention, Pediatrics, Ob/Gyn and Family Planning, and Nutrition.

For further course information, please call the UNM Latin American Institute, 277-2961. For further registration information, please call UNM Continuing Education, Resident Extension, 277-2931.

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Spanish for professionals

A series of courses developed for the working professional by the UNM Latin American Institute in cooperation with the UNM Division of Continuing Education and Community Serivces and the Department of Modern and Classical Languages.

SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (MEDICAL)

CLASS:	SPANISH 277-400	CLASS:	SPANISH 278-400
DAYS:	Tuesdays & Thursdays	DAYS:	Mondays & Wednesdays
TIME:	6:00 - 7:15 pm	TIME:	6:30 - 7:15 pm
DATES:	August 21 - December 14	DATES:	August 20 - December 14
LOCATION:	Basic Medical Science 201	LOCATION:	Ortega Hall 115

EMPHASIS: Spanish for Medical Personnel

REGISTRATION: UNM Continuing Education or UNM Registration Center (Student Services Center)

TUITION: $102.00 for residents and part-time students

The University of New Mexico Division of Continuing Education and Community Services, in cooperation with the UNM Latin American Institute and the Department of Modern and Classical Languages, offers two Spanish for Medical Personnel courses for Fall, 1984. These classes are Spanish 277-400 and 278-400. They each carry three credit hours of undergraduate credit.

These are intermediate level courses designed to prepare medical personnel to work in a health care setting with Spanish-speaking patients. The course emphasizes oral communication skills, with reading and writing as a lesser priorit Although medical terminology will be taught in the courses, it will be based o language that is understood by the patients. Subject areas include Interviewing/ Patient Histories, Physical Examination, Patient Education, Traditional Health Beliefs and Practices, Emergency Care/Accidents and Prevention, Pediatrics, OB/GYN and Family Planning, and Nutrition.

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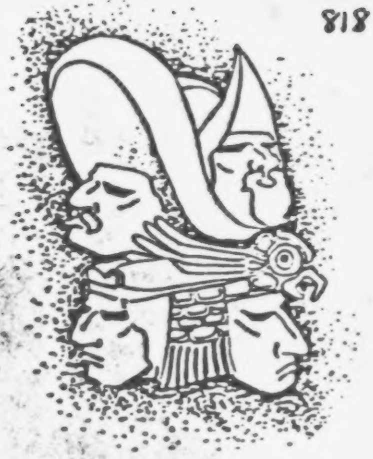
APPENDIX 4

Spanish for professionals



A series of courses developed for the working professional by the UNM Latin American Institute in cooperation with the UNM Division of Continuing Education and Community Serivces and the Department of Modern and Classical Languages.

SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (LEGAL)

CLASS:	SPAN 278-400
DAYS:	TUESDAYS AND THURSDAYS
TIME:	6:00-7:15 pm
DATES:	JANUARY 16-MAY 11, 1984
LOCATION:	UNM LAW SCHOOL ROOM 2403
EMPHASIS:	SPANISH FOR LEGAL AND LAW ENFORCEMENT PERSONNEL
REGISTRATION:	UNM CONTINUING EDUCATION OR UNM REGISTRATION CENTER
TUITION:	$96.75 for residents and part-time students
INSTRUCTOR:	MARIA KELLY, 277-2961 (UNM Latin American Institute)

The University of New Mexico Division of Continuing Education and Community Services, in cooperation with the UNM Latin American Institute and the Department of Modern and Classical Languages, offers a Spanish for Legal and Law Enforcement Personnel course for Spring, 1984. This class is Spanish 278-400. It carries three credit hours of undergraduate credit.

This class has been designed specifically for law enforcement and legal personnel. It is aimed at developing oral and written proficiency in Spanish which will enable the student to communicate effectively with Spanish speakers in a legal setting. Aspects of the legal profession to be covered include translation and interpretation of legal documents, in both languages, related to immigration, criminal and civil law, the study of slang expressions, street language and various dialects of the Spanish language as they relate to the Southwest; advising, interviewing, filling out and explaining legal forms to clients, as well as an examination of cultural differences. Students will be required to actively participate by means of compositions, oral presentations and in the elaboration of fictional situations reflecting students' interests and professional specialties.

TEXT: Diccinario de Terminos legales Espanol-Ingles e Ingles-Espanol

For further course information, please call the UNM Latin American Institute, 277-2961. For further registration information, please call UNM Continuing Education, Resident Extension, 277-2931.

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APPENDIX 5

SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS

LATIN AMERICAN INSTITUTE

UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO

LATIN AMERICAN INSTITUTE
801 YALE N.E.
THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO
ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO 87131

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SPANISH 120-400 **WORKSHOP IN CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH 03 Credit Hours**

This is a conversational course. Emphasis is on speaking and understanding. The beginning student will be trained in communication skills (reading and writing), and the development of passive vocabulary to enable the student to understand unfamiliar material. The purpose of this course is to enable the student to communicate in Spanish in his work, in the community and in travel. Meets Mondays and Wednesdays 4:30-5:45 p.m., Albuquerque High School, 800 Odelia Road NE, Rm. 102.

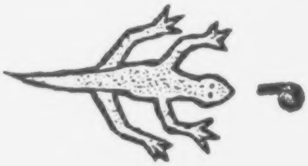
SPANISH 120-401 **WORKSHOP IN CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH 03 Credit Hours**

Description as above. Meets Tuesdays and Thursdays 5:00-6:15 p.m., Albuquerque High School, 800 Odelia Road NE, Rm. 101.

SPANISH 207-400 **WORKSHOP IN INTERMEDIATE CONVERSATIONAL SPANISH 03 Credit Hours**

This course is a continuation of Spanish 120 or for students with some prior course work in Spanish. Students will be guided to increase their vocabulary and ability to express themselves in specific situations. Extensive use of guided conversation, role playing and discussion. Meets Mondays and Wednesdays 4:30-5:45 p.m., Albuquerque High School, 800 Odelia Road NE, Rm. 101.

SPANISH 277-400 **SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONAL (LEGAL) 03 Credit Hours**



This course is aimed at developing oral and written proficiency in Spanish to enable the student to communicate effectively with Spanish speakers in a legal setting. This class will cover translation and interpretation of legal documents related to immigration, criminal and civil law, the study of slang expressions, street language, and interviews. Meets Tuesdays and Thursdays 6:00-7:15 p.m. in Ortega Hall UNM Campus.

SPANISH 277-401 **SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (BUSINESS) 03 Credit Hours**

Students will develop a working vocabulary of terms from the fields of banking, economics, finance, marketing, retail transactions and other areas of student interest. Primary emphasis is on development of a professional vocabulary and practice in speaking. Meets Tuesdays and Thursdays 6:00-7:15 p.m. in Ortega Hall 121.

SPANISH 278-400 **SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS (MEDICAL) 03 Credit Hours**

This course is designed for medical personnel with prior background in Spanish to prepare them for working in a health care setting. The course emphasizes oral communication skills, with reading and writing as a lesser priority. The following topics will be covered: patient histories, physical examinations, patient education, traditional health beliefs and practices, emergencies, pediatrics, OB/GYN and family planning. Meets Mondays and Wednesdays 6:30-7:45 p.m. in Ortega Hall 115.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION ON COURSE CONTENT, PLEASE CONTACT THE LATIN AMERICAN INSTITUTE AT 277-2961.
FOR REGISTRATION CONTACT THE DEPARTMENT OF CONTINUING EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICES AT 277-2931.

APPENDIX 6

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO
LATIN AMERICAN INSTITUTE
ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO 87131

SPANISH FOR PROFESSIONALS
LANGUAGE SURVEY

To asses the need for foreign languages in business, law, education and health care in our community, the Latin American Institute at the University of New Mexico, wouldlike you to answer the following questionnaire to help us develop courses to better suit your professional needs.

1. Would your company (organization) find it valuable for some or all of your personnel to know a foreign language?
   YES ______ NO ______

2. Which personnel would find it valuable to learn a foreign language?
   Management/Executive ______
   Professional/Technical ______
   Secretarial ______
   Other ______

3. Do you have anyone on your staff whose bilingual ability was instrumental in his/her being hired?
   YES ______ NO ______

4. Which language(s), if any, would your personnel be likely to use? Please, number in order of preference all that apply, with 1 being the highest in priority.
   Arabic ______ Chinese ______ French ______ German ______ Greek ______
   Hebrew ______ Italian ______ Japanese ______ Portuguese ______
   Russian ______ Spanish ______
   Other (specify) ______

5. What language skills would your personnel find most valuable? Circle one or more.
   business or technical emphasis ______ oral/written communication ______
   professional vocabulary ______ "survival" ______ total command ______
   written translation ______ oral interpretation ______
   Other (specify) ______

6. Please, feel free to add any additional comments or suggestions.

801 YALE N.E. TELEPHONE 505: 277-2961

FITTING IT ALL IN ONE SEMESTER: AN INTENSIVE INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN SPANISH FOR HELATH-CARE PERSONNEL

By

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Department of English and Foreign Languages
Bradley University
Peoria, Illinois

Carol Maier
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Bradley University
Peoria, Illinois 61625

Fitting It All in One Semester: an Intensive Introductory Course in Spanish for Health-Care Personnel

Carol Maier

Would it be possible to design a one-semester introductory Spanish course for health-care personnel? Could students learn, in such a short time, to communicate professionally, "in a simple but effective way," with their Spanish-speaking patients? Could they also learn about the Latino population of the United States and, more specifically, about the attitudes toward health and health care that play such an important role in communication between Latino patients and health-care professionals?[1]

These are some of the questions I was asked by our School of Nursing when several years ago they approached me about the creation of a course for nursing students and local health-care professionals. My initial response was both enthusiastic and guarded. I was well aware of the need for Anglo health-care professionals who had even a rudimentary knowledge of Spanish, but I had misgivings about an elementary language course that would be so short and so specialized. I worried that such a "crash course" might foster more confusion than communication by providing students with what could seem like a barrage of unrelated words and phrases. I also wondered if a brief introduction to only one aspect of Latino culture might not reinforce stereotypes rather than challenge them. I agreed to prepare a pilot course, but stressed its tentative, experimental nature.

The first few semesters that I taught the course were indeed tentative and my reactions to it were mixed. The class was allowed to grow too large; there was not a truly adequate text available; I saw the students only once a week for three hours because the nursing faculty felt that their majors could not schedule more frequent meetings. On the other hand, student response was overwhelmingly positive. Not only did my students enjoy the course itself, they were also excited by the results since there were always a few members of the class who were able to use the language skills immediately in their clinical experience. Language learning was obviously taking place, and I began to receive letters from former students who had been able to use that language with their patients. My reservations continued, but I was encouraged by the students´ achievement and by changes I was able to effect in the course structure: the class began to meet twice a week and enrollment was limited to twenty students. Enrollment was also limited to juniors and seniors, who would have the necessary medical background to benefit from a professional course and would be most likely to use the language immediately in the near future. I was also encouraged by the publication of new texts and by some of the contacts I established with local health-care and social work professionals who were willing to visit my class and discuss their work with the Latino population. Although I revised the course continually, it began to seem far more "substantial" to me and I felt confident about offering it on a regular basis. It is still one of my most demanding teaching assignments, but it is also one of the most rewarding; I enjoy the ongoing development of a course that is so closely related to various aspects of the students´ professional work.

Because the central purpose of the course is to make possible spoken communication in Spanish, much of our class time is spent on oral exercises. In the first meetings pronunciation is presented and drilled thoroughly; simple phrases of greeting are taught in order to make conversation possible immediately, and frequent dictations train students to listen carefully to unfamiliar sounds. Since vocabulary and dialogues are based almost exclusively on situations encountered in health-care settings, simple role playing exercises are possible after only a few meetings. Written assignments to be completed outside of class reinforce these oral exercises; work sheets provide practice in asking questions while giving instructions and student-prepared dialogues can be used orally in class. Short weekly quizzes underline the importance of studying Spanish every day, and this teaching of study skills is important because many of the students have not studied a foreign language before.

Although a successful class plan has developed slowly through a process of trial and error, the elements of the course that have proved to be most challenging are undoubtedly the formation of appropriate language goals and the discussion of Latino attitudes toward health care. When I first taught the course in 1977, few courses of its kind had been reported and few textbooks had been published. Although I had read brief descriptions of similar courses by Julia Tabery and Marguerite D. Bomse and Julian H. Alfaro, those descriptions were quite cursory, and they emphasized the legitimacy of short-term, professionally-oriented courses rather than their structure.[2] Fortunately I did have access to the first edition of Communicating in Spanish for Medical Personnel, the text that Tabery had published recently with Marion R. Webb and Beatriz Vázquez Mueller. Their book provided me with an excellent point of departure; in addition to serving as a text it offered a list of "suggested readings for cultural understanding" and presented a very useful way of teaching the rudimentary grammar needed for basic conversation. Students did not learn all three "persons" and they learned very few conjugations; they were taught instead a series of "essential communicating statements," many of which contained an infinitive. These statements could be modified for use in diverse situations, and they enabled students to speak in the present, future (using ir a and an infinitive) and the past (using the present perfect), and to use the imperative (by learning favor de, tener que and hay que).

I was pleased with the method developed by Tabery and her colleagues, but my students' ability to master the "essential communicating statements" soon had me wondering if they might not be capable of a more complete mastery of certain basic structures. Although we were not able to cover all of Communicating in Spanish for Medical Personnel in one semester, the chapters we omitted offered more vocabulary rather than further grammar. I found myself augmenting the text increasingly and preparing more and more worksheets. In particular I expanded the use of the present tense; I taught all three persons and I presented the three conjugations as well as quite a few of the irregular verbs. In 1981, when Maria Antonio DiLorenzo-Kearon and Thomas P. Kearon published Medical Spanish: A Conversational Approach, I decided to change texts and to combine the Kearon's more traditional approach to teaching grammar with the method developed by Tabery, Webb and Mueller.[3] This compromise has worked well for me and I have found that in one semester I can successfully teach about half of the Kearon's book, although I rearrange the material and although I still find myself preparing worksheets to provide adequate exercises. I have been pleased to find that this compromise method provided a solid basis for continued study in Spanish. A small group of nursing students who requested a second semester of instruction successfully completed the Kearon's book and one of those students is presently completing a third semester by using an intermediate (second year) text to fill in the gaps in her background.

The work done by these advanced students seems especially important because recent research about oral proficiency has sensitized me to the dangers of overloading students with vocabulary and depriving them of a grammar background that is solid enough to permit future language learning. I realize that few if any of the students who take my course for health-care personnel will ever try to attain true fluency in Spanish, but I would like their introductory work to be supportive of that fluency should they decide to study further. Consequently, I was not distressed to realize that my gradual decision to teach the present tense more thoroughly meant that students would not be able to develop as large a vocabulary. I had slowly come to see that the first several chapters of Tabery, Webb and Mueller´s book were distracting because they presented all of the body parts and organs immediately and thus overwhelmed the students with new words. Once it became clear to me that even a one-semester course had implications for long-term language goals, I began to work toward a more open-ended blend of grammar, vocabulary and conversation. I have tried to incorporate in my planning, for example, the caution expressed by Theodore V. Higgs and Ray Clifford about "unstructured communicative activities" that provide an "overdose" of vocabulary and enable a student to get across a message at the expense of a more complete future fluency (73). In particular, I have become quite careful about not asking beginning students to use language more creatively than they are able. As Higgs and Clifford explain:

> There appears to be a real danger of leading the students too rapidly into the "creative aspects of language use," in that the effect seems to be one of rewarding at the same time the _incorrect_

> communication strategies seized upon in attempting to deal with the communication situations presented. When these reinforced communication strategies fossilize prematurely, their subsequent modification or ultimate correction is rendered difficult to the point of impossibility, irrespective of the native talent or high motivation that the individual may have originally brought to the task (74).[4]

In short, then, although it is necessary that a one-semester professionally-oriented course place more emphasis on communication than grammatical accuracy, I am increasingly concerned with providing students with a balance of essential vocabulary and grammatical structures that permit limited but satisfying and accurate communication.

In an analogous way, the challenge of achieving a delicate oral balance is also present in the introduction of Latino culture and Latino attitudes toward health care. Although it is essential that my students, most of whom are middle and upper middle class Anglos and Blacks from the Midwest, learn about the Latino population, it is equally important that they are not encouraged to see Latinos as "the other" and that they learn about the differences as well as the similarities that characterize the Latino population in this country. Given the enormity of this task and the wealth of material available (material that will definitely not fit into one semester, especially when it must be presented as an integral yet nevertheless "extra" part of language study), I have been tempted many times to omit it from the course. Since many of my students, however, come to class with little or no accurate information about the people with whom they will be speaking Spanish, I continued to decide that the omission of cultural material would be far more reprehensible than the cursory treatment I can grant to it in fourteen weeks. The students have agreed wholeheartedly and, although they complain vociferously about learning the countries and capitals of Central and South America, they are always unanimous in their enthusiasiam for the reading, lectures and discussions about Latino culture.

The materials I use to work with cultural attitudes have varied considerably from one year to the next. Although I begin each semester with the map and with a brief introductory lecture about the unity and diversity that characterize the Latino population, I have used a wide variety of readings to expand on my introduction throughout the semester. When I first taught the course, resources in this area were rather scarce, and it was difficult to find readings that would be of "practical" use to students but not overly specialized with respect to a particular discipline. There was some stimulating and informative material available, however, and we were able to have excellent discussions based, for example, on Margaret Clark´s suggestions for "Changing Medical Ways" and on the series of one hospital´s cultural gaffes detailed in Loy Wiley´s "Brace Yourself: It´s an Orthopedic Delivery." Articles like Ron Arias´s "Sick to Death of the Health Mess" and Orlando Isaza´s "A Need for Whole Healing" expressed an annoyance and anger with Anglo efficiency that students had not heard verbalized before. My file of possible articles grew steadily until the difficulty became one of limiting, and evaluating rather than unearthing appropriate readings.[5] For this new task of selection, publications like La Red/The Net proved to be an enormous help; their review articles and bibliographies led me to a wide range of sensitive publications that I might not have seen otherwise, such as Latino Families, a resource book published by Planned Parenthood of America, which I am using at present. I have also found it possible each semester to supplement the readings and discussions with audio visual materials like National Public Radio's audiocassette "Sabor del Pueblo: Curanderismo" or the Wible Language Institute's filmstrip about "La Salud" in New York City,[6] and with guest lecturers from the community and occasional class trips such as a visit to the clinic run in conjunction with a migrant camp near Peoria.[7]

Curiously enough, however, the readings for some of my most successful semesters have not been from journals in the health or social sciences but from Latino poetry and fiction. In fact, many students have said that they far preferred the literary readings because the requirements in their major permitted them very few electives and they rarely had the opportunity to study literature. Although some instructors might cringe to think of literature being "used" in this way, I have seen a few lines of poetry make Latino culture and attitude accessible to students with an intensity unavailable to some of the most thorough scholarly articles. A poem like Alurista's "address" (25), for example, forces readers to recognize the painful misunderstandings that can occur when two cultures as well as two languages come into contact with each other. This is a poem that my classes read each semester when the students learn to take family histories and conduct admission procedures in Spanish. In the same way we read Myrtha Chábran's "Visit to the Dentist: Dialectics" and Miguel Piñero's "There is Nothing New in New York" (Algarín and Piñero 68) or Pedro Pietri's "Tata" (105) when we discuss the Puerto Rican response to New York City. Pietri's "intelligent" grandmother who . . . does not speak/ a word of english" after twenty-five years "in this dept store/ called america" invariably provokes mixed reactions and the class is plunged immediately into a discussion of some of the most essential conflicts faced by Latinos in this country. Pietri's mixture of English and Spanish also portrays vividly the bilingual "border" (frontera) or bilingual reality experienced by many Latinos, a reality that is presented even more dramatically and poignantly by a poem like Lorna Dee Cervantes's "Refugee Ship" (41). Although students may not be led to actually "identify" with these poets--and in some instances their responses are quite negative--the poems make Latino experience immediate and they present that experience in terms of language in a way that is especially appropriate for a class in elementary Spanish. They also introduce students to the plural nature of Spanish as it is spoken in the United States and make them aware that the "standard Spanish" taught in class will vary from one area of the country (as well as from one Spanish-speaking country) to the next.[8]

Because much of the literature I read with my students expresses the frustration and discouragement felt by many Latinos in a predominantly Anglo society, I believe that it is particularly important to also read poems and fiction that explain or even celebrate Latino traditions and values. Poems like Rodolfo Gonzales's "Yo soy Joaquín" present Latino affirmation as well as Latino struggles, as do the poems in Gary Soto's _The Elements of San Joaquín_ and some of the poems in Lorna Dee Cervantes's _Emplumada_ and Miguel Algarín and Miguel Piñero's _Nuyorican Poets_. Prose, of course, requires longer reading time, but students might also respond well to Nicholasa Mohr's books or to Sandara Cisneros's _The House on Mango Street_ or Oscar Hijuelos's _Our House in the Last World_. In fact, one of the most gratifying experiences I have had teaching literature occurred the semester that I read Rudolfo's _Bless Me, Ultima_ with my class for health-care personnel. Although the novel takes place in New Mexico during the 1940's and is thus limited to only one segment of the Latino population and one time period, I found that in our conversations about Tony's family and his relationship with the _curandera_ Ultima I was able to incorporate much of the general information and commentary that I usually present through more diverse readings. We had excellent conversations about the links between superstition, faith and healing, about the blend or conflict of cultures that Tony learns to affirm, about the fact that the novel itself "takes place" in Spanish although it was written in English. Students learned a great deal about Latino attitudes and backgrounds. They saw how those attitudes could affect--if not determine--what we call health, and they were made acutely aware of the ways in which language permeates all aspects of life.

Finally, lest it seem that a discussion of Tony's family and his relationship with Ultima or his search for the golden carp is quite distant from a more immediate situation--such as explaining an unfamiliar procedure to a frightened patient in a large urban hospital--, it is the larger view of language made possible by the study of literature as well as grammar that I believe must be present if an Anglo health-care professional is to communicate even minimally in Spanish. Without some knowledge of where the language is spoken or of the people who speak it, the most correct words risk inappropriateness. Although no instructor can hope to present an entire culture or an entire grammar in one semester, with careful planning they can both be well introduced and students can learn to communicate in a rudimentary but correct and effective manner that is capable of supporting a more thorough study.

NOTES

[1] I have used the word "Latino" rather than Hispanic throughout this paper because it seems to reflect more faithfully the diverse nature of what is commonly called the Hispanic population of the United States. As Andrade explains, the term "Latino" is more likely to suggest "the heterogeneous group of Spanish-language-heritage/Indigenous-European-Black racial origen peoples in the United States. . . . It is more positive and more encompassing of the groups′ commonalities" (6).

[2] Soon after, Palmer and Shawl reported briefly on a similar course they developed at Northern Illinois University; their text was also Communicating in Spanish for Medical Personnel.

[3] Several additional texts for teaching Spanish to health-care personnel are also available. For the most part, however, they are either intended for intermediate or advanced students or they would not be suitable for use in a one-semester course.

[4] I am grateful to my colleague Glen Dille for bringing this article to my attention. See also James 35 and Noble, who voices this concern in a less "technical" way.

[5] In addition to locating articles of general interest to health-care professionals, this evaluation involves the selection of articles that are not patronizing or demeaning to Latinos, articles that demonstrate sensitivity to the fine distinction between teaching about culture and encouraging stereotypes or presenting the Anglo health-care system as "gospel." (An article like Bronson′s, for example, seems particularly offensive because an understanding of Puerto Rican spirituality is used to suggest to Puerto Ricans that the Anglo message is equivalent to a divine revelation: "Both she [the woman′s

voice used to describe the clinic on the radio and in the press] should emphasize that it is God's will and fate that they [the Puerto Ricans] are either listening to the program or reading the article so that they will come in for a check-up, especially if they have any of the symptons mentioned. . .

The nurse can stress that it is the will of God that they know what to do when this happens . . . . fate has set up a special telephone number for them at the clinic" (271 and 274).

[6] Although their length makes scheduling difficult, films like Alambrista, El Norte, El Super and The Two Worlds of Angelita could certainly be used effectively to discuss cultural attitudes.

[7] These contacts with the Hispanic community always prove to be an invaluable part of the course. For semesters when such contacts are not possible, students can be made aware of the very immediate, political issues implicit in the area of health care for the Latino population by an article like Henry Weinstein's recent discussion of the "lack of amenities" (toilets, drinking water and washing water) suffered by farm laborers in many states.

[8] Because the course is so short and because I do not know where my students will work when they graduate, I use this "standard Spanish" in class. On the other hand, I do present some of the differences between the varieties of Spanish spoken in different parts of this country and I give the students multiple translations for many words and expressions. I also emphasize the need for Anglos to learn Spanish as it is spoken by the people with whom they work; as Andrade and Lotito explain, this would be crucial for a more thorough class and for a group of health-care professionals working in a particular community.

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SPANISH FOR NURSES: AN INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

By

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Associate Professor of Spanish

Loretto Heights College

Denver, Colorado

SPANISH FOR NURSES; AN INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

The Spanish for Nurses courses at Loretto Heights College embrace the linguistic need of the medical profession, culture and cultural differences among groups, specific medical problems particular to certain groups, medical systems and philosophy, and as a unique component, participation in the VALUES IN CONCERT series. By combining humanities courses in concertized sets with non-humanities courses, the Project touches every four-year student at the Heights. Its objectives, as stated in the Project proposal for the National Endowment for the Humanities, are to "bring humanistic skills and values to students who might otherwise not be exposed to them" allowing the participants to see connections between "humanistic studies and other disciplines." At the same time, it opens avenues for the faculty to "plan, teach and evaluate courses in conjunction with colleagues from all Program Areas." Students can relate conceptual and methodological points of contact among disciplines, and individual faculty can enlarge, through the cooperative enterprise, personal and academic horizons.

Contributing to the Project are the academic goals at Loretto Heights, the CORE Curriculum, and the Values in Conflict Project. All of them help to make Values in Concert a remarkable tool for the exercise of excellence in education and in the understanding of human values.

The Project enhances the learning environment for Humanities studies through faculty planning sessions, faculty symposia and a regional conference on interdisciplinary studies.

The procedures for the Values in Concert series are as follows:

a) Courses, in sets of three, hold three common meetings during the semester in which the set is concertized.

b) Issues for common meetings are selected in advance and instructors modify course syllabi to encompass an emphasis on the chosen topics.

The academic year of 1985 offered a total of 16 different course sets--48 courses in concert. Four new participant sets were implemented for the first time in 1984-85. The following are frameworks of the two in which Spanish is a participant. In the Fall of 1984 set #13 was initiated with the title: La Muerte: Art or Reality? Courses constituting the set were **Spanish 261:** Spanish for Nurses; **Nursing 362D:** The Developing Family and **Ballet 153:** Dance Theory.

As a second set began in Fall of 1984 set #14 was entitled The Third Ear: The dramatic and intellectual values of sound. Constituents of this set were **Spanish 361:** Oral and Written Interpretation; **Theater 120:** Voice and Diction I; and **Theater 245:** Oral Interpretation of Literature.

I will limit my discussion to a third set, one that has been part of the Project for the last two years: Set #12. Man, Culture and Healing. Components of this set are **Spanish 262:** Spanish for Nurses; **Dance 315:** Applied Kinesiology; **Nursing 362:** Nursing Process: Concepts for Practice.

Three major difficulties were presented in the formation of the set. The first was the complexity of the Nursing curriculum and the fact that the Spanish course was already a career course. The second was the fact that the students schedule competed with the nurses in being problematic and hectic. A third factor was that the number of students from the Nursing Area was double that of the other two groups.

With a lot of understanding on the part of the faculty involved and the Program Areas, the first obstacle was solved. A course from the junior Nursing curriculum was selected as allowing more flexibility. Even though the Spanish for Nurses courses are career-oriented courses, the majority of the students were not yet part of the Nursing Area, since they were freshman and sophomores. The times for the common meetings were arranged and the students were combined in groups in such a manner that a complete integration of the three programs (Spanish, Nursing and Dance) was acquired.

After a full three-day workshop, the value issue was chosen, the time of the meetings, the methodology, the place and the set title selected. During the semester, the faculty met seven times to refine the set. Course syllabi were changed to add all the details concerning the meetings and to allow some preparation on the part of the professors on values issues and questions. It was decided that the values issue should deal with the fact that persons might have a medical problem, but they are also human beings, influenced by their culture, society, environment, and peers. All of these factors influence their behavior habits, and definitely their health. The goals of the set were formulated so as to gain a better understanding of human persons, their relations to others, to themselves and to their own health.

The format for the three sessions follows:

FIRST SESSION

INTRODUCTION: (10 minutes) What is Values in Concert?

PRESENTATION OF THERAPEUTIC TOUCH: (5 minutes)

METHODOLOGY: All students participated in the perception of natural energy fields that can help to maintain or restore health:

a) through an energy field exercise using their own hands;

b) through an energy field exercise between two students.

DEMONSTRATION ON THERAPEUTIC TOUCH: (25 minutes)

METHODOLOGY: Professor and student. The rest of the class divided into three groups.

a) one group observed whether there had been any change in the student: physically, emotionally or of any other type;

b) another group observed any change in the professor performing the Therapeutic Touch experience;

c) the third group observed any change in the rest of the students.

DISCUSSION: (5 minutes)

PREPARATION FOR THE NEXT SESSION: (5 minutes)

The students received a set of Values questions which they were to answer by the second meeting.

Question and article on energy fields were assigned.

SECOND SESSION

INTRODUCTION: (10 minutes) Discussion of the article.

PRESENTATION ON ENERGY FIELDS: (5 minutes) Explanation of existing blocks of energy fields in the body that could cause pain and discomfort.

DEMONSTRATION ON COLOR IMAGERY: (25 minutes)

METHODOLOGY: All students guided by the professor participated in this experience.

DISCUSSION: (5 minutes)

Discussion of Therapeutic Touch and Color Imagery, ways of fostering optimum healing, which can be used adjunctively with other health care measures.

PREPARATION: (5 minutes)

Discussion of the values questions given in the first session.

THIRD SESSION

INTRODUCTION: (5 minutes) Hispanic and North American Values

PRESENTATION ON HISPANIC AND NORTH AMERICAN VALUES: (20 minutes)

METHODOLOGY: (20 minutes) Students were divided into groups of ten. They received a list of opposite values; for example, tradition-progress, loyality-competition, social harmony-personal fulfillment. The group had to decide which of these values were the five dominant in the United States today. Each group presented its choice. There was a brief discussion of similarities and differences. Through the same procedure, they picked the five dominant values in Hispanic culture.

DISCUSSION: (5 minutes) Results of the findings and how these value differences affect the perception of health, healing, life and death.

PRESENTATION: CURANDERISMO. Dianna Velazquez.

CONCLUSION: Participation in the Values in Concert series provides students and professors the rare opportunity of working together to improve understanding of the different perspectives of the three disciplines represented. It is also an INTERDISCIPLINARY approach to values questions and a channel to a deeper look at values issues. New instructional materials have been acquired for this common meeting. Books, films, slides, etc., speakers from the community have brought their expertise. Evaluation forms are given to the participants and are carefully considered by the professors participating, by the Program Director and by the program faculty in general. Every summer the set is refined and the critiques and suggestions of all the faculty are discussed and many times implemented.

The methodology, the time, the places, the number of meetings differ according to the nature of the values issues, the courses and the topics that are being considered. Flexibility and creativity are an integral part of this program. Its openness generates an amalgam of ideas that enrich not only the curriculum and the students, but the institution in general. Such a wide range of ideas has generally not been conceived as part of a small college. Nevertheless, it is a reality at Loretto Heights College, a reality of which we are all very proud.

As the year 2000 approaches, let us close the gap between a liberal art education and a professional program. They form a beautiful duet, a duet such as the one formed by the Caballero de la Mancha and Sancho Panza; sometimes complementing each other, sometimes differing completely, always profoundly human, they walk the road of their destiny.

FOOTNOTE

Values In Concert, National Endowment for the Humanities, Loretto Heights College, 1981 - 1985. Program Director, Robert L. Gibson.

THE NEED FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE PSYCHOLOGICAL PROFESSIONS

By

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It's 2:21 on a Thursday afternoon in Elgin, Illinois. On the edge of town is a complex of turn-of-the-century buildings that have recently been renamed the "Elgin Mental Health Center" but still known to Elgin residents as "The State Hospital."

About a fifteen minute bus ride in past the center of town is a little clinic that acts as a buffer zone for people on their way in or out of the hospital, as well as a place where ordinary folk with less severe problems can find help.

It's fall--early September. Inside the clinic this afternoon, one of the therapists is waiting for his 2:00 appointment, a first-time interview with a Puerto Rican woman recently moved to Illinois from New York. The client speaks no English. The therapist speaks no Spanish. Yet psychotherapy is the "talking cure." What happens when the partners cannot talk to each other?

In the next twenty minutes or so, we'll take a look at what did happen in this case. Excerpted below are the reports from the four clinic visits Rosa made prior to being hospitalized. Each session was conducted with a different interpreter. The first time was with Rosa's nephew, a young man about 23 or 24 years old. The second time, her husband translated. Then a professional translator was brought in. The fourth time was an emergency when Rosa became violent. The interpreter was called to help over the telephone.

All the data on these transcripts was released with the clinic's and the client's permission. The transcripts include, in addition to verbatim representations of the tapings made at each session, descriptions of non-verbal behavior noted by the therapist and included in Rosa's file. A psychiatrist will also come into the story to prescribe medication for Rosa, which of course a therapist cannot do.

FIRST INTERVIEW (on referral from a Spanish-speaking social worker)

Client arrived at 2:40 for a 2:00 appointment.

THERAPIST: There's not much time now but maybe we can at least get a little information and set up another appointment.

NEPHEW: OK, let's get going.

T: Ask her what the problem is. How can we help her here at the clinic?

[Exchange in Spanish]

N: She needs more medicine. She says she's all out of pills.

T: The medication was helping her?

[Exchange in Spanish]

N: Yeah.

Client is tense; has poor eye contact.

T: Ask her what it's like without the medication.

[Exchange in Spanish]

N: She says it's her nerves. She said, ah, "Sometimes they jump out" at her.

T: What does she act like?

N: Well, she's pretty jumpy, yeah. She's angry a lot but I don't know much because I don't live with them.

T: Is it true she hits and scratches her husband?

N: Yeah, I think so.

T: Do you know if she has the prescription for her medication?

N: I don't know. Look, I gotta go pick up my kids and get to work.

T: We've got to get more information so the doctor will know what to prescribe. Can you come back Saturday morning?

N: Yeah, sure.

In this excerpt, we see the therapist shift from telling the nephew to ask the client to merely interviewing the nephew. Furthermore, it's clear that the data this nephew is giving may be unreliable; the nephew admits that himself. But the therapist accepts it because there is no alternative. The therapist also displays his lack of cultural awareness when he notes that lack of eye contact is a sign of undesireable psychological state.

Saturday morning came and so did Rosa, bringing two small children. But the nephew never showed up. No one could speak to Rosa. She left. Her husband brought her back and rescheduled the appointment.

SECOND INTERVIEW (using husband as interpreter)

THERAPIST: Ask her what the problem is.

When husband turns toward her, she turns away. She does not make eye contact with either the therapist or the husband. Husband repeats question several times before getting answer.

HUSBAND: She say feel angry and no can sleep. She need medicine for to sleep. Then be O.K.

T: Do you know what kind of medicine she had been taking?

H: No take before. No medicine. No.

T: What is the problem? Ask her.

Tries to get wife engaged. She is agitated but finally says a few words.

H: (Obviously very uncomfortable) She say she hear her mother calling her, "Come to home."

T: Would you ask her if that's what she wants to tell me?

[Exchange in Spanish of several sentences]

H: Yeah.

T: What does she act like at home?

H: Sometimes she very angry. Real mad. I no can tell why. You a doctor?

T: No.

H: You tell doctor give medicine her, be OK.

This husband is obviously part of the problem. She cannot talk freely about him in any language if he is there. He is certainly not going to tell the therapist that he is the problem. The therapist does seem to pick up that this man is not giving the whole story because he asks the husband to ask the wife if his translation is really what she wants to say. The therapist doesn't object, however, when the husband's "translation" of several sentences is the single syllable, "Yeah." What is more, the therapist followed the husband's advice and scheduled an appointment for Rosa to see the psychiatrist.

The doctor is satisfied with the husband as a translator. He prescribes something for Rosa's sleeplessness.

THIRD INTERVIEW (at the therapist's insistence, a professional translator is hired for the session. The interpreter tells the therapist and client to speak directly to each other using the second person)

THERAPIST: Hello, Rosa. I'm glad to be talking with you. We'll just take a look at this paper the social worker gave me. Are these your children's names: Concepcion, Jose and Carlos?

ROSA: I have either children.

T: You have eight children?

R: They took them away. They're in homes. (cries)

T: Do you mean you have five children in a home? Is it a mental health care facility?

R: No! Homes! They are in homes. Homes. You know homes? With families. (cries)

T: It's painful to think about the children who are not with you.

R: They stole my baby.

T: Rosa, what is the problem now? How can I help you?

R: I hear voices telling me that I should go, that I should never come back. I am a little afraid of the voices but I want to obey them.

T: Is there anything else you are afraid of? Things

R: Things come into the house, big things, sometimes the devil. I want to escape, I am in a trap, a big cage. I don't have any peace.

T: Are you on any medication now, Rosa?

R: No. No, because I hit him and fell on top of him and I scratched him with my fingernails. I scratched him deep on his arm, like this. Alfredo. I pulled his hair.

T: Alfredo is your husband, isn't that right?

R: (No response)

T: You feel angry toward Alfredo.

R: He doesn't pay any attention to me. He drinks and smokes and brings other men into the house who drink and smoke. They always bring a big black cat with them but they say they don't have a cat. But I hear its footsteps. It comes in the house and I can't sleep.

T: Rosa, can you tell me what day today is?

R: (shrugs) I don't know.

T: What city are you in right now?

R: No, I don't know.

The therapist seems much more like a real psychologist now. He has more human contact with Rosa, who is more free to express herself. The therapist can make observations on Rosa's condition. He was able to see that her mental state was much more serious than merely having insomnia: she does not have a basic orientation to time and place. With her friends or family interpreting for her, this fact was unlikely to appear.

FOURTH INTERVIEW (crisis, interpretation handled by telephone)

The patient was brought in today and was extremely agitated and upset with her husband. She attacked him physically, scratching and striking him very hard several times without apparent provocation. She picked up small objects to throw at him when restrained from coming close to him.

[No official record was made of the following verbal exchange. The account is from the memory of the interpreter]

The therapist called the interpreter at home, saying that the client was shouting things and trying to make herself understood. The therapist asked the interpreter to speak to Rosa on the telephone.

Rosa has very few front teeth, so the process of understanding over the telephone was more difficult than in a face-to-face encounter where visual clues make an utterance easier to understand.

INTERPRETER: What is the matter, Rosa?

ROSA: My husband is a demon. I'm going to kill him.

THERAPIST, coming on the telephone: What did she say?

I: That her husband is a demon and that she's going to kill him.

T: Ask her if whe wants to go into the hospital.

I: Do you want to go to the hospital, Rosa?

R: Yes, I want them to put me in the hospital before I kill him. The hospital is the only place where I have any peace. I Absolutely refuse to go home.

The client also refused to get into a car with the husband to go to the hospital, so a sister-in-law was called. She took about thirty minutes to arrive, during which time Rosa darted up to her husband and hit him or threw something at him whenever she was not restrained. At one point she became so violent that the interpreter was calle again, but there was no answer.

While Rosa was in the hospital, a Spanish-speaking psychiatrist was added to the staff. He quickly discovered that Rosa's current medication was prescribed on the basis of a diagnosis of "Sleeplessness and agitation." The non-Spanish-speaking doctor knew nothing of Rosa's violence or disorientation, because he had depended on the husband for translation. The new doctor changed her prescription immediately.

After three weeks in the hospital, Rosa continued seeing the Hispanic psychiatrist regularly. To conclude, brief excerpts are added below of her last three interviews, summary reports by the Spanish-speaking psychiatrist.

INTERVIEW

Rosa comes to the office today and her husband states that last week Monday, she experienced a psychotic episode due to failing to take for two days the medication. She became very agressive and agitated. Some of her relatives took her to the hospital where she spent that night and was released the following day.

Today she seems calm and less anxious than other times and she expresses her desires not to be hospitalized any more.

INTERVIEW

Rosa comes today obviously improved from the last time I saw her. She looks more relaxed and in her interaction with her husband, there is no evidence of the agressiveness and combativeness that was characteristic of her. She says she's sleeping a little bit better, but not as much as she would like to. She's able to sit down without moving for at least ten minutes, and she doesn't seem as suspicious and guarded as in previous sessions.

INTERVIEW

Rosa comes tonight exhibiting signs of psychomotor agitation, but less pronounced than in previous visits. She states she's sleeping better and she is occasionally taking care of the house and children.

Rosa's major problem seemed to have been missing her proper medication. Information coming from her nephew and her husband was unreliable for different reasons. The session with the interpreter was better, but not having a bilingual on the staff made the whole experience more traumatic and time-consuming than was necessary. When a bilingual professional was hired, the immediate problem was solved. Now if there are problems in the marital relationship, they can be addressed without interference from Rosa's agitation and disorientation.

TEACHING SPANISH FOR TECHNICAL PURPOSES

By

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TEACHING SPANISH FOR TECHNICAL PURPOSES

In 1984 and 1985, Eastern Michigan University has received funding from the U.S. Department of Education to develop and implement a comprehensive program in International Studies and Foreign Languages with a focus on high technology. While several components are involved in this program, the one I will report on today is the Spanish language component, which includes a two semester sequence on the undergraduate level and a similar sequence on the graduate level for students who have not previously studied such material. I will describe the problems and successes in developing and offering the undergraduate courses over the last two years.

In our initial efforts to design the course, we attempted to follow a rather standard procedure of identifying the target populations, assessing their needs, and structuring course content in response to the identified needs and interests of our students.(1) We had anticipated that a significant part of the students would come from EMU's growing College of Technology as well as from majors in the College of Business and our departmental majors in Language and International Trade. To date, we have not been able to recruit any students from the College of Technology. We attribute this to the difficulty those students encounter in finding the time for language study within an already crowded curriculum. As a result, students during the first year of program implementation came almost exclusively from majors offered by the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies (14 out of 15). This of course meant that the general level of scientific and technical expertise was generally lower than originally anticipated. On the other hand, it also meant that the general level of language proficiency was higher than that anticipated for students in the College of Technology.

Despite the lack of students from the College of Technology, the student population still presented significant differences with respect to two key variables: 1. large disparities in technical and scientific preparation and aptitude, and 2. a wider than normal range of language proficiency, with a sizeable portion of the students, at least at EMU, having excellent language skills. This was particularly noticeable because these courses present topics of interest to native speakers interested in building their vocabulary for use in translating technical documents. Several of our students (2 of 7 in the first semester, 8 of 10 in the second semester) were Hispanics with native or near-native language proficiency. Their scientific and technical background, however, varied even more widely than those of non-native speakers. Our Hispanic population included a medical laboratory technician, a computer science major, and a professional translator.

Our experience illustrates a fundamental problem which Widdowson has addressed at length.(2) Teaching language for special purposes forces the course designer to examine the extent to which he or she believes such courses should emphasize precisely specified, restricted vocabulary and formulae for use in a limited range of problem situations. If we are successful in the future in identifying a specific subpopulation from the College of Technology or from a particular scientific background, we will be able to bias the course more heavily in this direction, following more closely the models developed in many English for Special Purposes (ESP) courses. Our first year of implementation, however, indicates that in our setting a broader approach is more suitable and more effective in stimulating student interest. Since most of our students did not have a specific scientific or technical field to target, they were receptive to a wide spectrum approach which provided an introduction to several different fields.

As a result of all the variables in student characteristics and interests, the courses have been designed and implemented in such a way as to serve a broad target group: anyone who (a) has the ability to participate in a class conducted primarily in Spanish (at least two, and preferibly three, years of college Spanish), and (b) needs bilingual skills in a technical or scientific field, whether for reading and translating documents to and from Spanish or for communicating with Spanish-speaking personnel in a work setting. Major emphasis is placed on translations from Spanish into English, but limited practice in English to Spanish translation is also included. Incidentally, the diverse nature of the student population also obliges the instructor to be extremely humble: it is almost certain that someone in the class knows more about the specific scientific or technical topic being covered than the instructor does.

Course content. We cover some of the fundamental terminology in a wide variety of fields over the course of the two semester sequence (see Table 1). After introducing appropriate terms related to mathematics and measurement, we move to several subfields of physics, with an emphasis on those topics (electromagnetism, mechanics) which serve as a basis for the technical applications studied later on. In the first semester, we emphasize the automotive field, obviously of great relevance in southeastern Michigan. In the second semester, we move to the scientific fields of chemistry and biology, exploring applications in the areas of nutrition, laboratory techniques, and medical technology. We then address computer hardware and software, information systems, and automated processes. In addition to preparing the topics covered by the entire class, students are required to investigate the vocabulary and resources normally used in their particular scientific or technical fields of interest and to make reports on their findings to the class. These reports (two per semester) frequently introduce concepts and terminology from applications and fields not covered by the class as a whole.

Methodology. We sought to increase face validity and student interest by following Widdowson's admonition to use a "methodology which engages the learner in activities which he would normally engage in when putting language to use for particular purposes."(3) Our investigations of the practical needs of our students have indicated translation and a greater technical vocabulary are required. Therefore, students were given extensive readings in the fields to be covered in the semester. These readings were discussed and their technical vocabulary reviewed in class. Based on the readings, lists of key vocabulary items have been constructed, and students are responsible for these items on periodic quizzes and examinations. Each week, students translate passages of approximately two hundred words, generally from Spanish into English, but two or three times per semester, from English into Spanish. Twice per semester, students make oral reports to the class in Spanish on scientific/technical topics of interest to them. They must distribute an outline of the report and a list of 12-15 technical vocabulary words included in the report. Examinations do not require detailed knowledge of the more esoteric tecnicalities introduced in the readings and class reports; they do require (a) the production of translations into English (or definitions in Spanish) of isolated terms and (b) translations of continuous passages relating to the topics covered. As can be seen from the above, the emphasis clearly falls on vocabulary acquisition and the translation skills needed to transfer technical knowledge from one language to the other.

Materials. Given the lack of a specific technical field to target, accomodating the varied student backgrounds and interests necessitates identifying materials at different levels of linguistic complication for many different fields and subspecialties. Grading the materials for both grammatical and notional (scientific/technical) content was a significant challenge.(4) As indicated before, because of the population at EMU this first year of implementation, we were able to use materials requiring a high level of language proficiency, but the subject matter sophistication was less than originally anticipated. As a result, we have used a very broad array of sources, ranging from elementary school level introductions to gears, levers, and the inclined plane (developed for bilingual programs in the U.S.), to newspaper articles, to excerpts from Mexican secondary school science texts, to technical journal articles on telecommunication systems. We also used some materials with a comic book format designed to disseminate nutritional information to a wide audience (these were a welcome change in register for the Hispanics, but quite difficult for non-natives because of their informal idioms). This diversity of materials insures that there will be something both accessible and challenging to the students involved, whatever their background may be. It also generates more interest and variety than the standard textbook approach. Further diversity is introduced by student projects which go beyond the common class materials and frequently include realia from their specific fields.

Outcomes. Student evaluations reveal great satisfaction with the opportunities to investigate topics of interest to them. They also learn a surprising amount of new information in technical fields outside their original areas of expertise. Most students welcome this, provided that they are assured of the opportunity to focus on their specific interests both as a segment of the class and in their individual projects. Further, considerable satisfaction is derived from their awareness of increased skills in the translation of technical texts. Student dissatisfactions relate to having to study topics of little perceived relevance to their career goals, to the difficulty in understanding some of the texts (and to the quality of the translations into Spanish of some texts based on English originals), and to the instructor's ignorance in certain technical fields.

TABLE 1

COURSE OUTLINES

SPN 456 Scientific and Technical Spanish I

Terminology, readings, and translation exercises in:

I. Mathematics
  A. Arithmetic
  B. Algebra
  C. Plane geometry
II. Measurement
  A. U.S. system
  B. Metric system
  C. Scientific units
    1. Mechanics
    2. Electricity and Magnetism
III. Electricity and Magnetism
  A. Magnetism
  B. Electricity
  C. Electromagnetism
    1. Generators and alternators
    2. Motors
    3. Transformers
IV. Physics
  A. Mechanics
    1. Pulley
    2. Gears
  B. Heat
  C. Sound
  D. Electromagnetic spectrum
V. Internal Combustion Engine
  A. Reciprocating
    1. Four cycle
    2. Two cycle
  B. Rotary
  C. Fuel system
  D. Ignition system
  E. Exhaust system
VI. Automobile
  A. Drive train
  B. Steering system
  C. Braking system
  D. Frame, body, and suspension system
VII. Student projects in areas of individual interest

SPN 457 Scientific and Technical Spanish II

Terminology, readings, and translation exercises in:

I. Chemistry
  A. Periodic table
  B. Compounds
  C. Reactions

II. Biology
    A. Organic compounds
    B. Animals
    C. Human physiology
    D. Nutrition
    E. Medical technology
III. Computers
    A. Hardware
        1. Major components
        2. Peripherals
        3. Communications
    B. Software
        1. Binary code
        2. Programming languages
        3. Word processing
        4. Data bases
IV. Information systems
    A. Systems approach
    B. Design
    C. Data processing
    D. Telecommunications
V. Automation
    A. Feedback and communication systems
    B. Control systems
VII. Student projects in areas of individual interest

NOTES

1. Roger T. Bell, *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981), pp. 32-52.

2. H. G. Widdowson, *Learning Purpose and Language Use* (London: Oxford University Press, 1983), pp. 5-28.

3. Widdowson, op. cit., p. 88.

4. Bell, op. cit., pp. 57-61.

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SPANISH AND LEGAL ASSISTING: A COLLABORATIVE VENTURE

By

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SPANISH AND LEGAL ASSISTING: A COLLABORATIVE VENTURE

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The Legal Assisting Program at the University of Toledo has been in existence over nine years and is housed in the Community and Technical College (a separate branch of the university) under the direction of Dr. Nancy C. Robon. It is the only legal assisting program in northwest Ohio to be approved by the American Bar Association. Some two years ago, efforts were made to combine this program with the study of Spanish, housed in the College of Arts and Sciences, in order to offer our students a new and innovative collaborative undergraduate major.

Collaboration is not a new idea for the Department of Foreign Languages. Over the past three years, this department has worked jointly with the International Business Institute of the College of Business on a federally funded project to create courses and materials for the study of the interaction between the world of international business and foreign cultures and languages. The end result was the creation of special business language and culture courses in French, German, Russian, and Spanish. The department has also collaborated with the Department of Secondary Education of the College of Education in creating a close working relationship with the area secondary school foreign language programs and teachers. These efforts have culminated in an annual fall conference on the teaching of foreign cultures, languages and literatures which, last year, attracted some one hundred twenty-five colleagues to our campus. The department has also worked, and continues to work, with the Department of English in the funding and maintenance of a jointly-used computer terminal room, and is currently seeking, along with English, funding for a micro computer laboratory.

Collaboration, according to readings of recent issues of the _A.D.F.L. Bulletin_ seems to have become one of the watchwords for the survival of foreign languages in the mid 1980's (16, 2, January 1985). "Cooperation", or just plain "hanging together", as Lewis and Godbey have called it, are other appropriate synonyms (_ADFL Bulletin_ 16, 1, September 1984). Our experience with collaboration indicates that it is not an immediate remedy for low or declining enrollments. The cooperative ventures outlined before will require years of filling the pipeline before they will pay off in significant enrollment gains. The largest single plus to the present has been that collaboration has moved our department in new directions, and it has created new and interesting opportunities for our faculty, and courses for our students. In the case of Spanish and Legal Assisting, collaboration has added four new courses to our offerings. It has also opened new, and previously un-tapped ways for students to enter the study of Spanish.

Students choosing to major in Spanish and Legal Assisting may do so by enrolling in either the Community and Technical College or the College of Arts and Sciences. If they start with our Community and Technical College, they must complete a curriculum consisting of some twenty-five courses, totaling ninety-six credit hours. By a special arrangement ninety of these are automatically accepted by Arts and Sciences, under a program commonly referred to as "two plus two," with three hours of Social Science, five of Humanities and fifteen of Natural Science being required for graduation in addition to the hours of electives and the major program in Spanish. If the students choose to enter the program through initial enrollment in the College of Arts and Sciences, in addition to the usual courses of study, they will take some fifty-one hours of the major in Spanish, and twenty-four in legal assisting at the Community and Technical College as "supporting courses" (a minor) for the major program.

The legal assisting program provides training that allows individuals to work under the supervision of an attorney, particularly assisting with discovery, legal research, the drafting of legal documents, and other related duties. The curriculum consists of the following courses: introduction to law; introduction to legal assisting; legal research; civil procedures; advanced legal research; tort law; business organizations; estate and probate administration; real estate transactions, and a legal assisting internship.

In Spanish, the student's major program starts at the sophomore level with Business Spanish, a course created by earlier collaborative efforts with the College of Business. It continues at the junior level with two four-credit-hour courses in conversation, followed by a review of Spanish grammar (we had earlier decided to separate these traditionally combined studies, conversation and grammar, in order to concentrate even more on linguistic proficiency). The junior-level sequence is completed with a course in Latin American civilization. None of these courses is new, nor is additional staff required. They form part of our regular major track. At the senior-year level, the students take our traditional two-course sequence in Spanish syntax and stylistics. At this level, they will encounter new courses specifically created for this program, many of which should also prove attractive to the more traditional Spanish language and literature major. The courses in question are: Spanish for legal assistants; readings in Hispanic literature; translation and interpretation, and contemporary Hispanic civilization.

There is clearly visible in our structuring and sequencing of courses an effort to maximize cultural awareness and language proficiency. We hope to achieve what Marilyn R. Frankenthaler, in her Skills for Bilingual Legal Personnel (1982), calls "cultural fluency" in our junior and senior civilization courses. The course in "contemporary" civilization was added due to the fact that the traditional "civ" courses never seem to make it to the Mexican Revolution, much less to the 1980's. Of the two, the former will be the more challenging to teach given the difficulty in finding suitable materials, even in a city with a wonderful Spanish name like our's, Toledo. In addition to the usual source material for "civ" courses, we hope (budget pending) to be able to take advantage of foreign-made video tapes and, perhaps, television programs destined for the Spanish-speaking public taken from satellite transmissions. We have carefully chosen a broad-based look at all of Latin America, even though the largest Hispanic group in the Toledo area is the Mexican-American. Likewise, we have targeted our language courses on a "standard" Spanish, as Frankenthaler has suggested, in opposition to concentrating only on the Spanish spoken by the Mexican-Americans. The wisdom of this choice seems to have been confirmed by the employment prospects for our first graduate who, though she will do her internship in Toledo, will most probably work in Florida with the Cuban community after graduation. Thus, we prefer to leave the particularities of individual dialects and cultural idiosyncrasies to the realm of the working world, after the student has been well grounded as an undergraduate in the basics of the Spanish language.

On the very practical side, we are now in the process of augmenting the materials that Frankenthaler provides in her text with sample documents for the students to work with and translate from the Toledo area legal system. Probably the single most difficult thing for the student to acquire in preparation for his or her career is the appropriate vocabulary. Legalese in English is enough of a challenge without adding to it the complexities of a foreign tongue. To this end, we have begun entering the most common standard legal terms and phrases into modular computerized vocabulary drills so that the students may start acquisition very early in the major program, and not be faced with a nearly impossible task in their senior year. These programs are now being done for the Apple IIe line now used at The University of Toledo, and will be re-done this summer for the IBM-PC, the computer of choice of many attorneys. The vocabulary will be augmented through constant consultation with attorneys working with the Hispanic community in the Toledo area. This process is already under way. This course will eventually be staffed by a Spanish-speaking attorney employed as either an adjunct or part-time member of the department. The rest of the courses will be taught by members of the department's regular staff.

The fact that these courses will not require any additional tenured full-time staff, that they have the potential for increasing enrollments, makes them all the easier to sell to a administration conscious of predicted enrollment declines in the future and of tough competition for scarce funds both inside and outside the university. Collaborative efforts like this one have been fully supported at both decanal and vice presidental levels at The University of Toledo. This support was verified before any formal steps toward creation of the program were initiated. Contacts were also made with the Toledo legal and hispanic communities.

The demand for Spanish-speaking legal assistants in Ohio is potentially quite large. Estimates of the state's Spanish-speaking population range from 120,000 to 270,000. In Lucas County alone, which encompases the greater Toledo area, there are some 24,000 Hispanics, and the Hispanic case load in the area courts is already quite substantial. The statistical information used to substantiate our case for this program was obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau, the Spanish Commission in Columbus, Ohio, and, of very significant help locally, from the Spanish-speaking department of the Catholic Diocese of Toledo.

Once all details of the collaborative relationship were worked out, a working lunch was hosted which brought together faculty and administrators from the university, and representatives from the area legal and Hispanic communities. The presence of the deans of the Community and Technical College and the College of Arts and Sciences along with Judge Joseph Flores of the Toledo Municipal Court, several Spanish-speaking practicing attorneys, and representatives of key goverment and diocesan "service" programs greatly facilitated the ironing out of the final details. It was important for representatives from the university to hear directly from the community regarding the desirability of the Spanish and legal assisting program. In starting a program of this nature, enough emphasis cannot be given to the need to carefully build support both inside and outside the university environment.

Support for this program was already present in the Department of Foreign Languages. Though not blessed with embarrassingly high enrollments, our's now have increased to the point where, in Spanish, we more than meet the F.T.E. (full-time equivalent) model for staffing estabilshed by the Ohio Board of Regents. In addition, as we never intended to retrain ourselves in the field of law, there was never a threat to our departmental identity. Our experience with collaborative efforts has taught us that one of the most important things we have to offer in such ventures is our training as humanists. Though we have added programs that reach out to three other colleges within the university, we have never lost sight of our roles as humanists, nor have we ceased being predominantly a department of foreign languages and literatures.

The only difficulty encountered in achieving final approval for this program was in obtaining the positive vote of the legislative council of the College of Arts and Sciences. Here, the major issues related to the need for additional staff, to projected enrollment growth, and to the nature of the civilization courses we were teaching. Some colleagues from other departments questioned whether it might not be better to have the majors in this program take their additional work in history, political science or sociology rather than create an additional course in the department of foreign languages. Since that course would be taught in Spanish, and would transcend the limits of a single history or cultural anthropology course, this minor problem was solved, and approval given. In all candor, our willingness to recommend additional study in other departments, along with assurances that there would no vast stampede of students from other programs into ours helped soothe this potentially sore spot.

Has collaboration paid off? The next few years will decide the answer. For the present, it has given the department of foreign languages much higher visibility within the college structure; it has offered new opportunities for growth to both our faculty and our students. It has allowed us to transcend the traditional boundaries of university structure. In particular, the legal assisting program has rooted us firmly in the surrounding community and has allowed us to meet a specific need. Perhaps above all, it has allowed us to demonstrate to our upper administration that we are doing all that we can to maximize our potential, and it has allowed us to achieve new growth and yet maintain our roles as humanists and teachers of languages and literatures.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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PART VIII

MISCELLANEOUS

MOTIVATING JOURNALISM STUDENTS TO BECOME PROFICIENT IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE:

A TWO-YEAR SEQUENCE OF PRINT AND BROADCAST MEDIA COURSES IN FRENCH AND SPANISH

By

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MOTIVATING JOURNALISM STUDENTS TO BECOME PROFICIENT IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A TWO-YEAR SEQUENCE OF PRINT AND BROADCAST MEDIA COURSES IN FRENCH AND SPANISH

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In the fall of 1984 the Modern Languages Department at Ohio University launched two sequences of courses designed to teach French and Spanish to students in journalism and communications. The purpose of the project is to encourage the study of foreign languages among American students planning careers in journalism and in other fields of communications. By providing new courses based on print and broadcast media in French and Spanish, our goal is to motivate the students to study the target language for a minimum of six quarters in order to acquire skills that will be useful to them professionally. Acquiring listening, reading, and speaking skills at a level high enough to be able to function well in the target language requires at least two years of study beyond the beginning courses. Therefore, we are especially interested in attracting College of Communications students during their first two years on campus so that they can complete the six-course sequence in French or Spanish and even go on to complete a major or minor in the language.

Rationale for Creating Special Courses

Our decision to make an aggressive effort to encourage journalism and communications students to study French or Spanish beyond the beginning level was based on four factors:

1. Foreign language courses count towards the requirements for several degrees in the College of Communications, but very few journalism and communications majors select these courses as an area of concentration. The Bachelor of Science in Journalism requires that three-fourths of the student´s program consist of courses in the liberal arts and sciences and one-fourth in professional courses in journalism. Although journalism students are required to take only one course in a foreign language above the beginning level, they must also take a minimum of thirty-six hours in a single department within the College of Arts and Sciences or a minimum of eighteen approved hours in each of two departments in Arts and Sciences. When we examined our enrollment data for the intermediate level in French and Spanish, we found that most journalism majors dropped the study of a foreign language after completing the one required quarter. By creating French and Spanish courses at the intermediate and advanced levels that would be specifically related to the interests of journalism students, we hoped to increase the possibility that these students would choose French or Spanish as one of their areas of concentration in the College of Arts and Sciences. Students majoring in other fields in the College of Communications (general communication, interpersonal communication, telecommunications, and communication management)

can also elect foreign language courses to fulfill part of the general requirements for their degrees. Our goal in the Modern Languages Department is to offer foreign language courses that are of particular interest to these students so that they will be more likely to choose French or Spanish as an area of concentration.

2. Incentives to become proficient in a foreign language exist in the Ohio University School of Journalism. Each year a foreign correspondents course is offered from which students are selected for internships abroad. For assignnments outside the English-speaking world, top priority is given to students who can communicate in French or Spanish. One problem in the past has been that outstanding students in journalism often did not have the foreign language skills needed to carry out a foreign internship assignment. The director of the foreign correspondents internship program, Professor John Wilhelm, has been one of the strongest supporters of our new sequence of courses in French and Spanish. He emphasizes in his foreign correspondents course that proficiency in a foreign language is absolutely necessary for an assignment in a country where Engish is not the national language. Students who want to be a journalism intern in a French- or Spanish-speaking country or in a Spanish-speaking area of the United States increase their chances of selection by taking the special sequence of courses offered by the Modern Languages Department.

In addition to the foreign internships offered by the O.U. School of Journalism, there are two other programs that provide incentives for journalism students to become proficient in a foreign language during their first two or three years at the University. The Club Français d'Amérique offers summer internships with French and Quebec newspapers on a competitive basis.[1] Participants are selected on the basis of their performance in journalism and their proficiency in French. Ohio University student Charles Pinyan was among the six interns selected to participate in the program in the summer of 1985.

The Ohio University Modern Languages Department sponsors one-quarter academic programs in France and Mexico for which students at the beginning and advanced levels in French and Spanish may apply. These opportunities to go abroad and communicate in the foreign language provide strong incentives for journalism students to complete the six-course sequence in French or Spanish.

3. The enthusiastic support we have received from our colleagues in the College of Communications and especially in the School of Journalism was also a major factor in our decision to create special sequences of courses in French and Spanish for journalism and communications majors. Journalism Professor Ralph Izard collaborated with us on writing the grant and has been tireless in his efforts to advertise the courses in his college and recommend them to students. This close collaboration and support from communications and journalism is an important factor in the success of our courses. A positive, encouraging attitude towards the study of foreign language is evident among journalism professors at Ohio University and students are aware of it. If we can expand the global view of future journalists, we will have

indeed made a step forward.

4. Last, but certainly not least, our motivation to create new sequences of courses in French and Spanish was partly based on self-interest. We need to recruit more students at the intermediate and advanced levels, where the enrollment tends to fall sharply. In French, for example, the first quarter of the beginning level has an average of 175 students; by the end of the intermediate level there is an enrollment of about 60. Only about twenty-five students go on to the third-year advanced conversation and composition course. By adding a special section of French for journalism and communications students with an enrollment of fifteen, we hope to increase the number of students at the advanced level by one-third. Out of this group we might also add to our number of majors and minors in French. The same situation and goals apply to Spanish.

Applying for a Grant

Our plan to create special sequences of French and Spanish courses based on print and broadcast media and designed to attract journalism and communications students seemed to fit the type of projects funded by the U.S. Dept. of Education's Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language Programs. In cooperation with the O.U. School of Journalism, the Modern Languages Department submitted a grant application in the fall of 1983. Six months later we learned that our project had been selected for an award of $42,000 for the first year. Just recently we were notified that an additional $43,000 for the second year has been approved.

The grant includes funding to cover released time for professors to prepare the new courses; instructional materials such as newspapers, magazines, and computer programs in both French and Spanish; travel expenses and honoraria for guest speakers representing the French- and Spanish-speaking media; and partial cost of a satellite dish to bring in live television broadcasts from Montreal and Mexico City. Since only five percent of the grant funds could be used for equipment, matching funds were sought from sources within Ohio University. The O. U. 1804 Fund provided an additional $10,000 to cover the purchase and installation of the satellite dish.

Recruitment, Enrollment, and Retention

Immediately after learning that our grant had been awarded, we met with colleagues in journalism to plan advising strategies. In order to realize our goal of attracting journalism and communications students to the study of foreign languages and cultures it was very important to advertise the special French and Spanish media courses and make sure that advisors in modern languages and communications were informed about the new courses. By working in close collaboration with journalism we were able to schedule the two media sections of French and Spanish at a time when they would not conflict with required journalism courses. We produced a brochure about the courses and distributed it in time for the spring pre-registration period during which students choose courses they will be taking fall quarter.

Our recruiting efforts were aimed at two groups of students: 1) those already on campus who were completing the first year of French and Spanish or already had the equivalent, and 2) freshmen who would be entering the university in the fall with at least two or three years of French or Spanish completed. We were able to reach students in the first group through our pre-registration advising process. Many students in the second group came to campus in the summer for pre-college orientation. It was essential that these students be made aware of the media courses in French and Spanish for two reasons: 1) by continuing their language studies fall quarter of their freshman year they would be more likely to succeed because they would be reinforcing their acquired skills right away, and 2) by getting them interested in foreign language media courses early in their academic careers, they would be more likely to continue studying French or Spanish at the advanced level, would qualify for foreign internships, and could take advantage of study abroad opportunities offered by our department.

Our recruiting efforts were very successful. The goal for fall quarter was to fill one section each of the media courses in French and Spanish. We try to limit class sections to twenty students in our department. The maximum we normally allow is twenty-five. In the media course in French we accepted twenty-eight students, and twenty-four were enrolled in Spanish.

Our next concern was retention. Since journalism and communications students are required to take only one foreign language course at the intermediate level, the critical moment came at the end of fall quarter when they made the decision either to continue in the foreign language as a humanities elective or select another area of concentration. In French twenty-four out of the original twenty-eight students enrolled in the second quarter of the media sequence; in Spanish nineteen students out of the twenty-four continued. In the spring quarter twenty students enrolled in French and seventeen in Spanish. Given the many scheduling problems inherent in the system, we are very pleased with our retention rate during the first year of the sequence.

Our long-range goal is to keep these same students in the sequence for another three quarters at the advanced level. We will be able to achieve this goal as long as the courses continue to be interesting, demanding, and relevant to journalism and communications. With the availability of live programs brought in by satellite dish and the higher skill levels of the students, their motivation is increasing as their comprehension level rises.

Curriculum Development

Although language faculty members regularly read the foreign press, teaching the target language through the use of print and broadcast media requires a great deal of preparation that goes beyond the cursory reading of a newspaper or magazine. We began our curriculum development in the summer of 1984 with a workshop under the direction of Alvina Ruprecht, a French professor at

Carleton University in Ottawa, who established the first courses at her institution designed to teach French through the use of the news media to Anglophone Canadian journalism students. Her work was brought to my attention through an article she had published in the Canadian Modern Language Review.[2]

Professor Ruprecht provided a great deal of bibliographical material on the Francophone press as well as sample class assignments. She also showed video segments taken from French Canadian television programs and gave a demonstration on how she makes use of them in class. Although her students are more advanced than ours and have constant access to the Francophone media, we found that many ideas she presented could be adapted to the intermediate level, where our special sequence begins.

Our next step was to order subscriptions to French- and Spanish-language newspapers and news magazines to add to the limited number already available at the University library. These periodicals are used in two ways: 1) the instructor selects articles, photocopies enough for each student, and bases class assignments on articles read by all the students; and 2) students go to the library, research articles on a specific topic in various newspapers and magazines, and then complete individual assignments.

In order to help students acquire listening comprehension skills necessary to understand live broadcasts, we use audio and video programs which are appropriate for the intermediate level, such as Aérodrame[3], a French radio drama divided into 20-minute segments with follow-up questions, Champs-Elysées[4], a bi-weekly broadcast from Radio Luxembourg that includes a transcript for verification of comprehension, and Contact French[5], a video series produced by John Rassias at Dartmouth College designed to introduce students to live situations, interviews, and different French accents. In the French sequence, I continue to use these programs along with segments of broadcasts brought in by satellite dish to monitor in our language laboratory, where students can watch live programs from Montreal and Mexico City.

Our computer lab serves as an efficient means of reviewing basic grammar, perfecting idioms that are common in both print and broadcast media, and reinforcing comprehension of audio and video material. After listening to audio or video assignments, students then go to the computer lab where they use a program that is specifically designed to help them verify what they understood (or misunderstood). The computer programs are very effective in preparing students for class discussions on programs they have listened to or viewed on their own.

The only textbook used in the intermediate sequence of courses for journalism students is a review grammar. Since students enter the sequence after a three-month summer break and from a variety of language-learning backgrounds, a systematic review of grammar is necessary. In the French sequence I try to relate each chapter of grammar to listening or reading assignments. For example, after reviewing how to form different types of questions in French, the students read and studied interviews and opinion polls found in the Francophone press and watched interviews on video tapes. Then they prepared interviews with each other and with native speakers of French whom I invited to class. They also wrote a questionnaire in French for an opinion poll on alcoholism and smoking, which they administered to their classmates. The vocabulary for both subjects was provided in newspaper articles they had read. The review of grammar has been very effective because it is constantly reinforced by examples in print and broadcast media.

Developing techniques for teaching French and Spanish through the use of the media requires imagination, the desire to try different approaches and materials, and new ways of testing students. At the intermediate level a great deal of care must be taken in the selection of articles and broadcasts to be assigned. The two most important criteria for selection of material from the media are level of difficulty and subject matter. Some articles in the press are not well written or contain too much technical jargon for intermediate students. As for subject matter, one should avoid articles that deal with local political problems for which the students do not have the background information needed to understand the pertinent points. For example, among the segments of an evening news broadcast from Montreal there was one dealing with the controversy of raising various types of taxes at the national and provincial levels and another about the first Canadian astronaut who will fly on an American space shuttle. The second topic is not only more interesting, but easier for students to understand from the point of view of vocabulary. The discretion of the teacher is very important in choosing newspaper articles and broadcast segments at the intermediate level so that students do not become discouraged.

Guest Speakers

The purpose of inviting guest speakers to campus as part of our program is twofold: 1) to encourage students to envision a long-range goal and to see how the effort they make on a day-to-day basis in the foreign language leads to a skill level that will be useful and rewarding to them in the future; and 2) to give them the opportunity to learn more about the media in French- and Spanish-speaking countries through direct contact with foreign journalists and broadcasters.

Our first guest speaker was Anne Swardson, a correspondent for the *Washington Post*. Because of her fluency in French, Ms. Swardson was awarded an internship in Paris while completing her degree in journalism. During her assignment in Paris she wrote several articles which brought her journalistic skills to the attention of *Business Week*, where she was offered a job after her internship. She later worked as Washington correspondent for the Dallas Morning News and was sent to France on various assignments because of her ability to communicate in French. An excellent role model for students aspiring to careers in journalism and communications, Ms. Swardson described the international reporting assignments for which she was selected because of her fluency in French. She emphasized that language proficiency alone does not qualify a person for a job in journalism; but the candidate who has outstanding skills in journalism plus fluency in a foreign language will have a definite advantage over other candidates for jobs in the field.

In the winter quarter we invited New York-based correspondent

José-Maria Carrascal, who writes for the Spanish news publication ABC and prepares daily news broadcasts for a radio station in Madrid. Mr. Carrascal discussed his work and the media in Spain with students in the Spanish course for journalism and communications majors. He also gave a presentation in the foreign correspondents class given in the School of Journalism. In the spring José Carreño, correspondent for NOTIMEX in Washington came to campus to discuss print and broadcast media in Mexico.

After studying recent developments in the French media, students had an opportunity to learn more about these events from Henri Pierre, Washington correspondent for Le Monde. While on campus Mr. Pierre participated in a number of French and journalism classes, gave interviews, and chatted informally with students. Louis Lesage, a television producer for Radio Canada and former print journalist, gave students a first-hand account of what is happening in the Francophone media in Quebec.

Having native speakers as guests has given students the opportunity to use the target language in an authentic situation. Journalists with international experience play an important role in our program because they bring a broader perspective to students in the language-media courses and in the School of Journalism. Students continue their foreign language studies with a renewed sense of purpose; they are now able to read the foreign press and interview correspondents in the target language. This feeling of accomplishment is important during the long, often tedious process of becoming proficient in a foreign language.

Evaluation of the Courses

At the end of fall, winter, and spring quarters the students evaluated the French and Spanish media courses by filling out the standard student evaluation form used in all classes taught in the Modern Languages Department. The form contains thirteen objective questions about the course content and instructor. Student responses are scored by a computer. In addition, the students are encouraged to write comments expressing their opinions about the course with the assurance that the evaluations will be anonymous and not made available to the professor until after grades have been turned in.

On the objective part of the evaluation dealing with course content, 90% of the responses indicated excellent or above average in both the French and Spanish media courses. The students´ written comments reveal this enthusiastic response more vividly: "This course sparked an interest in French for me--a desire to learn more"; "An excellent class for communications students--I have already fulfilled my language requirement but I´m planning to continue in this course throughtout the year"; "My interest in Spanish is renewed." Comments such as these indicate that we are indeed headed in the right direction. Students also made suggestions, such as spending more time working on individual pronunciation. In response to this suggestion, I had my students make their own cassette recordings of news broadcasts and they recorded their questions for each interview, which I listened to and corrected individually. We are continuing to perfect pronunciation in this way and by reviewing basic pronunciation patterns in class. We will continue to evaluate the media courses on a quarter-by-quarter basis taking into consideration both the students´ opinions and our own assessment of progress towards goals we have set for the sequence.

Conclusion

Our efforts to motivate journalism students to become proficient in French and Spanish have been very successful at the intermediate level. The students who have stayed in the sequence through the third quarter of study are strongly interested in perfecting all four skills in the target language. Five of my students have applied for internships in France and several others plan to go abroad in the near future. It has been a rewarding experience for me to teach journalism students because of their interest in world events and, an added bonus, their good command of English grammar and style. Most of them read the American press daily and enjoy doing the reading assignments in the Francophone press. They are convinced that journalists need to know what is going on outside the United States and how our country is viewed by the news media in other countries.

Creating new foreign language courses for journalism students has brought a higher level of visibility to the Modern Languages Department. Articles about the media courses, the $85,000 grant, and the installation of the satellite dish have appeared in various university publications and in the

Ohio Journalist. Our collaboration with the School of Journalism has been mutually beneficial. They are interested in training journalists who will have a global perspective and be able to communicate in another language. In Modern Languages we are interested in freeing the "tongue-tied American." Our partnership with journalism should continue to be a fruitful one.

NOTES

[1] For information on the journalism internship program in France and Quebec contact Susan Levitz, Executive Director, Club Français d'Amérique, 1051 Divisadero St., San Francisco, CA 94115, (415) 921-5100.

[2] "Les média dans la salle de classe: L'enseignement du français aux étudiants en journalisme." The Canadian Modern Language Review, Vol. 37, No. 2 (Jan. 1981), pp. 320-328. The article is written in French.

[3] Published by EMC Corporation, 180 East Sixth St., St. Paul, MN 55101.

[4] Published by Champs-Elysées, Inc., P.O. Box 158067, Nashville, TN 37215.

[5] Produced by CBS/FOX VIDEO, 23705 Industrial Park Dr., Farmington Hills, MI 48024.

THE USE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN INTERNATIONAL BANKING:
A FURTHER LOOK

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My paper today is titled "A Further Look at the Use of Foreign Languages in International Banking." Last year at the EMU Conference, I presented the first look at the results of questionnaires which I had sent to banking officers in international departments of 20 leading banks in Houston and Dallas. The questionnaires asked the officers whether they used foreign langauges at work, what foreign language skills, if any, they used and to what degree. The results were positive-- that is the bankers felt that foreign language proficiency was important and useful for their career. And I was pleased to conclude that international banking, because of its interpersonal relationships and overseas opportunities, can be an interesting career for the humanities major who acquires a business core background or more exactly a Masters of International Management or MBA degree.

The information which my questionnaires provided, although helpful, had certain limitations. The block checking "yes/no" format of the questionnaire did not allow me to ask in-depth questions or explanations and of course bankers would not have had the time to write down long answers-- hence one attraction of the questionnaire being its brevity. I felt that a 20-30 minute interview with about ten officers would allow me to confirm the questionnaire's worth while giving me the opportunity to see these people in their own milieu and quite frankly as individual entities rather than computer-generated responses. I also wanted to have a closer look at the workings of international department in a major bank and discuss with the officers the structure of the department and the day-to-day functions of the international banking offcier. Finally, I was interested in determining what percentage of each day, if any, that international officers spend using the target language.

I chose two large banks in Dallas: Interfirst and Republic with sizeable international departments. These are Texas banks or what business people call oversized regional banks. They are not money-centered establishments such as Chase or Bank of America with major flows of money. I found out that the international department consists of two sections: lending and operations. Operations comprise the day-to-day activities that staff provide: issuing letters of credit, foreign exchange, collections, paying and receiving.

The lending center was where I was located. This is the center which has the line officers whose responsibility is to lend money, to monitor the loans in their portfolio and to provide services. The banks told me that marketing (soliciting business or "selling the bank") has become quite important with deregulation and that their activities include attracting customers and investors, providing information to foreigners on starting a business, on where they should locate and then offering mortgage services. Still another offcier on a higher supervisory level told me that his 3 major concerns are reviewing loan payments, market conditions and loan workups. Basically, however, the 3 services are lending money, collecting it and providing services.

The lending side to the international department at Interfirst has approximately 20 people: 15 officers and a staff of 5, whereas the larger Republic Bank has about 30. At Interfirst the lending section is further divided into geographical groups. The Latin American group is the largest and is followed by the Asian group. Then there is the so-called European group to which are attached unceremoniously Africa and the Middle East. Republic has a similar division consisting of Hemispheric Groups: Far East, Latin America, Europe and then a fourth group-- a catch-all-- consisting in Canada, Australia, New Zealand and the Middle East. I think this final category has everything else but Anarctica.

Each Hemispheric group has a division head, often a senior vice president. In Interfirst, as in Republic, Asia and Latin America were the two groups with the greatest activity; Europe is less active since it already has a mature financial market with its own banking. Roughly 10-15% of the international loans were made to Europe and Africa-- and of the balance 1/3 were made to Latin America and 2/3 to Asia.

Of the 10 officers I interviewed, all but one had foreign language training; three bankers were actually French, Portuguese and Japanese. 2 of them were going to be sent to Japan and Brazil. The man going to Brazil was given a rather strong incentive-- he had to learn Portuguese by this September or his boss wouldn't let him go to his assignment in São Paolo (to what degree he had to learn Portuguese I am not sure and I don't know if his manager even knew). In any event, he was industriously meeting with his Berlitz instructor during every noon hour. The instructor would come to the bank at the banker's convenience. I was pleased to learn that Republic was paying the costs of language training. Both banks, I was informed, cover the costs of additional refresher language training. One woman in the European section of one of the banks has dealings with French companies in Dallas. She told me that if she had French language skills she could undoubtedly attract more French clients to her bank. Her language training was in Spanish.

5 of the 10 officers were native Americans having either lived abroad or studied the foreign language in US universities, or both. The head of the Latin American Division at Interfirst lived in Brazil for 5 years and is fluent in Portuguese; he also has some proficiency in Spanish. He has a Masters in International Management from Thunderbird and is quite insistent on his personnel possessing language

skills; he admitted to me that finance majors with language skills are an asset to his division. Other officers were foreign born or had grown up with an ethnic family in America and had spoken the target language since childhood.At one of the banks,the head of the European Division is German and speaks German and Russian. His assistant is native French. Still another officer is Iranian and speaks fluent Indonesian and English while having some knowledge of French, Vietnamese and Thai.

"For what percentage of the day do you speak the foreign language?" Among the bankers the range was 5% to 35% of the day. The young man learning Japanese said that when he becomes "proficient" in the language (by this word I interpret an Intermediate Level on the ACTFL oral proficiency scale),he will use it more than 30% of the day speaking with his Japanese boss, his administrative assistant and clients--especially in the area of cultural amenities.

"On what occasions and in what ways do you use the foreign language?" One banker used Spanish at meetings. Still another used Spanish with customers and with co-workers, face-to-face and on the telephone. Extra compensation for language skills is not given to officers but is offered at the clerical level. The Indonesian linguist informed me that his clients prefer conversing in their own language -- it makes them more comfrotable. He also stated that lacking a foreign language and not being able to break the culture barrier may result in the loss of opportunity. He further mentioned the importance of non-verbal communication and above all the avoidance of translating if at all possible.

The majority of bankers whom I interviewed use a foreign language on the telephone with customers, during travel and face-to-face with customers and co-workers. The percentage of the day's work in the target language varied from 5% to 35%. The leader of the Latin American Hemispheric Group at Republic stressed that financial statements from his region arrive in Spanish and that Spanish business has its own terms in the language and often does not use English terminology. He needs people not only with oral proficiency in Spanish but also with an understanding of accounting procedures. For example, the Mexican accounting system is complex and different from ours, the banker noted. Command of a foreign language comes into play with interpersonal skills (marketing, listening to clients, putting them at ease, giving them the impression that you understand their culture and cultural differences between you and them) as well as credit analysis work or reading ability in the target language.

The interviews with the ten officers confirmed the results from the questionnaires identifying listening and speaking as the two most important or widely used skills. The bankers also pointed out that knowledge of culture is desirable.

Not all the bankers interviewed admitted to travel as part of their job. One vice president in the Latin American section of Interfirst travels 20% to 25% of the time and his use of the target language increases during these trips abroad. Furthermore, officers state that the chance to live overseas is good if one so desires. Opportunities exist abroad--especially in the Pacific Rim. The Indonesian desk officer pointed out that Interfirst has branch offices in Singapore and Tokyo while commenting that demand is greater than supply for international banking in the Pacific arena--in both foreign-owned and American banks.

The banking officers told me that foreign languages are not required for international banking positions, This statement matched the questionnaires' response from last year that competency is desirable but not mandatory. All officers, however, identify language proficiency and cultural awareness as two important assets for the job. At Interfirst bank, the European desk officer said that the ability to use a foreign language was part of the year's performance evaluation. This same person was acquiring French in addition to Spanish because of the growing business with France in Dallas. Since most of the ventures in Spanish-speaking countries are not in Europe but in Latin America, this European officer seldom gets to use Spanish. The potential to use French in the international community of Dallas is present and thus her need to learn that language.

The ten Dallas bankers applauded and called out for the need of foreign language proficiency in international banking. We must concede, however, that all but one of these bankers had foreign language training and all are cross-culturally sensitive. But what about the officers in other sectors of the bank such as domestic lending and agrobusiness? What about the other officers in the international department whom I was unable to consult? And what about the recruiters for these large banks-- are they aware of the need for foreign languages in international banking? Do they actively recruit candidates with language skills for their international positions? Are they told to search out these skills? Finally, have the attitudes of the upper management changed? Several of the officers indicated to me that traditionally quantitative (business management) preparation still eclipses consideration for language competence and other factors such as cultural experience.

It may be that all 10 bankers whom I interviewed speak a foreign language well or are eager and motivated to become proficient in one; I was told however that there are still many international bankers who are not proficient. The percentage of these officers at Republic Bank who have language skills ranges from 20% to 33%. At Interfirst, most of the line officers in the international lending department are language proficient but 2/3 of them (12 out of 15) learned English as their second language.

A realistic look at international banking will include the view that foreign language proficiency is a secondary but hopefully important skill for the profession, Hopefully, this skill will come to be more and more appreciated by recruiters, upper-level management and the international banking community. Whether the candidate has an MIM or MBA degree, his or her being hired by a bank will depend on two principal factors. First (and this will always be to a large degree important) the candidate must have a reasonably strong quantitative (business) background. Second, a fairly outgoing and pleasing personality is essential for a career which places so much emphasis on customer relations and interpersonal skills. For this last reason, some international bankers see the advantage of a humanities formation-- such as languages or area studies-- coupled with a business corps preparation. Humanities people have shown themselves to be open, alert, persuasive and good negotiators-- that is they can possess excellent communication skills. Also, those who have studied foreign langauges and who have lived abroad are culturally sensitive.

For the language/humanities major who is able to supplement his education with an MBA or MIM degree, international banking can provide travel and overseas employment as well as the daily use of the foreign language in customer and co-worker relations. The members of the international departments of the 30 banks to which I initially sent questionnaires last year and the 10 bankers whom I subsequently interviewed attested to the desirability and importance of foreign language proficiency and cultural awareness in international banking. Perhaps later on more and more international bankers will see the necessity of these language skills.

In the meantime,it is incumbent on the language departments of colleges and universities to reassess their goals and set new ones-- if need be. Specifially to be considered is the establishment of oral proficiency guidelines and levels for each of the first four semesters of foreign language programs and the reaffirmation to teach students oral proficiency in the target language--the practical, communicative skills which they can perhaps use later in such professions as journalism, business and foreign affairs.

COURT INTERPRETER TRAINING:
A GROWING NEED

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Court Interpreter Training:
A Growing Need

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I. Introduction

As more and more non-English-speaking people (many of them Hispanic) enter the United States, an increasing number of governmental and nongovernmental agencies and organizations face communication barriers. In their contacts with such groups, people possessing minimal English skills or totally lacking such skills often find themselves at a great disadvantage in many situations which have potentially critical consequences.

One such governmental entity is the criminal justice system. A non-English-speaking defendant's encounter with the courts is often a nightmare. Understandably, a person's inability to comprehend the what is transpiring prevents him/her from fully contributing to his/her own case. For this reason, some courts have recognized the need for qualified interpreters to aid non-English-speakers during courtroom proceedings.

The current paper examines a number of pertinent developments re court interpretation which support the author's contention that more and more qualified interpreters are needed every day to assist in both the federal and state courts. With an emphasis on the criminal justice system, the article specifically discusses federal statutory developments (focusing on the implementation and impact of the Court Interpreters Act of 1978); constitutional bases for the appointment of a court interpreter, including federal developments in case law, state cases which refer to the Federal Constitution, and state cases which refer to state constitutions; a case study of the recent efforts in the State of New Jersey to improve its court interpretation services; why court interpretation training is needed and what kind of training should be provided; and the current status of court interpreter training in the United States. The study concludes by looking at what remains to be done in the rapidly expanding field of court interpretation.

Even though it is obvious that many minority groups face difficulties in our courts (including the hearing-impaired) (Ingram, in press), the current article concentrates on the plight of the Hispanic since the great majority of cases which require interpretation services involve the Spanish language (Annual Report of the Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts 1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, and 1984).[1]

II. Federal Statutory Developments

Prior to passage of the Court Interpreter's Act of 1978 (Public Law 95-539), The Criminal Justice Act of 1964, Rule 604 of the Federal Rules of Evidence, and Rule 28(b) of the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure regulated interpreter use in the federal criminal courts. Rule 604 of the Federal Rules of Evidence is a very important one. It states:

> An interpreter is subject to the provisions of these rules relating to qualification as an expert and the administration of an oath or affirmation that he will make a true translation.

Very importantly, qualifying as an expert witness indicates that interpreting is regarded by the federal courts as a speciality requiring arcane knowledge. In addition, the role which the interpreter plays makes him/her subject to having his/her interpretation challenged and impeached just like any other expert witness. Such a procedure provides a safeguard designed to protect the constitutional and statutory rights of all involved parties. Rule 604 still applies to all interpreters working in the federal courts.

A more detailed examination of Rule 28(b) is also warranted. It states:

> The court *may* appoint an interpreter of its *own selection* and may fix the reasonable compensation of such interpreter. Such compensation shall be paid out of funds provided by law or by the government, as the court may direct. (emphasis added)

There are two key points to be made about the wording of Rule 28(b). First of all, "the court *may* appoint an interpreter" allows the provision of an interpreter to be at the discretion of the court. As a result, even if the defendant has no knowledge of the English language at all, appointment of an interpreter is *not* mandatory, according to Rule 28(b). Chang and Araujo write:

> [W]e are confronted with the absurdity of a system which grants an attorney to the indigent defendant but refuses to provide an interpreter so he can effectively communicate with counsel (1975:820).

There have been cases in which the courts have blatantly ignored the lack of both communicative and receptive competence in English on the part of the defendant. Such courts have refused to appoint an interpreter to aid the accused. "Without the aid of an interpreter, the probability of error prejudicial to the defendant is great and the likelihood of detection of such error low" (Chang and Araujo 1975:823). In Diaz v. State 491 S.W.2d 166 (Tex. Crim. App. 1973), for example, the trial court denied interpreter assistance to the accused while he testified. Diaz appealed, noting that he had requested an interpreter in open court, but that his request had been ignored by the judge. The court record clearly demonstrated that Diaz had minimal knowledge of English. As a result, he had great difficulty not only following the attorney's questions but also expressing himself in English during his testimony. In an attempt to have the defendant better understand what was being asked of him, the judge allowed the defense attorney to lead the witness during questioning. The trial court record showed that the judge stated:

> The Court: I will permit you to go beyond the normal English speaking standard, but make your leading to the minimum. . . .
>
> The Court: You just listen very carefully to the man's questions. I think you can get along all right, to either of the lawyers, they'll put their questions to you pretty clearly, I think (167).

Even with these glaring problems, Diaz's appeal for a new trial was denied.

Secondly, Rule 28(b) states "...an interpreter of its own selection." A primary consideration in this regard is the ability (or inability) of a trial judge to determine whether or not an interpreter "of [the court's] own selection" is qualified to perform the job. The overwhelming majority of judges are monolingual English-speakers. They are in no position to assess the competence of a person called to serve as an interpreter. The courts have not always exhibited genuine regard for the welfare of the non-English-speaking defendant. In the past (before passage of the Court Interpreters Act), many federal judges appointed interpreters strictly on an ad hoc basis. For example, bailiffs, secretaries who work in the courthouse, relatives of the defendant, police officers, and even spectators in the courtroom have been called on by the court to provide interpretation services. Since the judge often has no way to assess the interpretation skills or determine the foreign language competence of a person selected to interpret, the completeness and accuracy of the ad hoc interpreters' translations would certainly be in question.

Evidence of concern about the inadequate provisions of Rule 28(b) was noted by Senator John Tunney of California who introduced The Bilingual Courts Act (S.565, 94th Cong., 1st Sess. (1975)). Unfortunately, this bill never became law. However, had it been passed by the Congress, the Act would have required the federal courts to certify interpreters and use them in district courts. As well, it would have allowed tape recordings of the courtroom proceedings so the translated material could be compared with the original language of testimony and examined for accuracy.

Two other similar bills were produced by the 94th Congress: H.R. 4096 and H.R. 2243. H.R. 4096 would have required the

Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts (AOUSC) to designate a district as a "bilingual judicial district" if forty thousand or four percent (whichever is less) of the district residents did not understand or speak English. When so designated, each bilingual judicial district would be provided with simultaneous interpretation equipment as well as with other electronic taping equipment so the court proceedings could be recorded. H.R. 2243 would have required a district to have fifty thousand or five percent of its residents demonstrating English language difficulty in order to qualify as a bilingual judicial district. Neither H.R. 4096 nor H.R. 2243 ever became law. Of course, there are some very obvious problems which manifest themselves when one considers the two House bills. First of all, how would the Director of the AOUSC have determined the eligibility of an area to become a "bilingual judicial district?" Would he/she have examined census figures for concentrations of Hispanic people by geographical region? Certainly, that would be a start; however, just because someone checks "Hispanic" as his/her ethnic origin on a census form in no way indicates (or guarantees) that the person does not speak or understand the English language. Without going into more detail, one can quickly identify the potential problems which could arise from the enactment of bills such as these.

Although none of the aforementioned three bills ever became law, we may view them (at least in part) as precursors to the Court Interpreters Act of 1978 insofar as the Act does mandate that the Director of the AOUSC certify interpreters for use in the federal courts, among other things.

As indicated earlier, the provision for interpreters under Rule 28(b) was inadequate because it left the critical decision of whether or not to appoint an interpreter entirely to the discretion of the court. Moreover, the court was not (and often still is not) qualified to determine the foreign language and interpretation skills of a person designated as the interpreter.

To address the shortcomings of Rule 28(b), and to provide a more organized and professional framework for appointing interpreters in the United States courts, the Court Interpreters Act (Public Law 95-539) was passed by Congress on October 28, 1978. Section 1827, "Interpreters in Courts of the United States," states, in pertinent part:

> (a) The Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts shall establish a program to facilitate the use of interpreters in the courts of the United States.
>
> (b) The Director shall prescribe, determine, and certify the qualifications of persons who may serve as certified interpreters in courts of the United States in bilingual proceedings ....
>
> (d) The presiding judicial officer, with the assistance of the Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts, shall utilize the services of the most available certified interpreter. . . in any criminal or civil action initiated by the United States in a United States district court. . . if the presiding judicial officer determines on such officer's own motion or on the motion of a party that such party (including the defendant in a criminal case), or a witness who may present testimony in such action--
> (1) speaks only or primarily a language other than the English language. . .
> so as to inhibit such party's comprehension of the proceedings or communication with counsel or the

> presiding judicial officer, or so as to inhibit such witness' comprehension of questions and the presentation of such testimony.

Moreover, Section 1828, "Special Interpretation Services," mandates: "(a). . . The program shall provide a capacity for simultaneous interpretation services in multidefendant criminal actions and multidefendant civil actions."

Since passage of the Court Interpreters Act, the AOUSC has moved ahead to certify Spanish/English interpreters for use in the federal courts. Initially, the AOUSC "focused on identifying those actual tasks regularly performed by federal court interpreters, as well as determining competency levels for successful performance of their duties" (Annual Report of the Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts 1980:151). In addition, over 70 people (i.e., leaders of professional interpretation organizations, jurists, academicians, and so on) were interviewed by the AOUSC. Almost everyone in this group urged the AOUSC to develop and implement rigorous standards in its certification procedure so as to best identify the people who possess the requisite knowledge for interpreting in complex courtroom proceedings.

With the aid of several highly qualified consultants, the Personnel Office of the AOUSC developed a certification test in Spanish/English. The examination has two parts. The first section is a written test designed to assess whether or not a candidate is equally proficient in both Spanish and English in the necessarily high register of courtroom language. Candidates who demonstrate the requisite proficiency on the first part of the examination proceed to the second part, an oral test. Part II basically assesses the candidate's simultaneous and consecutive interpretation skills as well as his/her ability in sight translation.

The written test was developed and first tested in November of 1979. After several minor modifications, the final version was administered in 82 cities nationwide. Announcements for the examination were distributed throughout the federal and superior court systems and to interpretation organizations. A total of 1,336 people actually took the examination and 412 were successful on the written test. Of these 412 candidates, 110 went on to pass the oral test and were subsequently certified by the Director of the AOUSC. A federal judge who observed the administration of the oral test at one of the 82 locations deemed it "an excellent test which clearly identified those who could meet the degree of proficiency required in the courts" (Annual Report of the Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts 1980:155).

The certification program was desperately needed for Spanish-English, as evidenced by the following statistics provided by the district courts. Table I indicates the number of times interpreters were used in the United States District and Bankruptcy Courts during the past five years:

Insert Table I here

Interestingly enough, except during 1980, the number of cases requiring the use of Spanish interpreters has risen consistently from 1979 through 1983. The increase of almost 12,000 cases during this five-year period indicates very clearly that Spanish interpreters are needed more and more often in the federal courts. One can infer from these figures that the state courts must certainly hear many cases that necessitate Spanish interpreters as well.

With respect to the AOUSC's Federal Court Interpreter Certification Program, it is noteworthy that, as of April, 1984, there are 263 federally certified court interpreters in Spanish/English in the United States. Upon examination of the roster of "Certified Spanish/English Interpreters" compiled by the AOUSC, one discovers, however, that these 263 individuals are domiciled in only 24 of the 50 states as well as in the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico. Those 24 states include Arizona, California, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, and Texas, all of which have significant Hispanic populations. In fact, 65.7% of the total number of federally certified court interpreters are domiciled in these 8 states, which represent only 16% of the 50 United States. Table II provides a distribution of federally certified Spanish/English interpreters in the aforementioned states as well as the Hispanic population of those states:

Insert Table II here

Surprisingly, Illinois, with a Hispanic population of 636,000, has only 3 federally certified interpreters while Florida (with only 22,000 more Hispanics than Illinois) has 31 federally certified court interpreters, more than 10 times the Illinois figure. Also of interest is the fact that Texas, with a Hispanic population nearly twice as large as that of New York, has only 5 more certified court interpreters than does the Empire State.

As I conducted my research on the ratio of federally certified court interpreters to the Hispanic population in the United States, I found it rather peculiar that Colorado, with a population of approximately 340,000 Hispanic residents, does not have even one federally certified interpreter. However, in a conversation with Mr. Jon Leeth, Special Assistant to the Assistant Director of the AOUSC, he told me that, surprisingly enough, there are very few requests from the federal district courts in Colorado for Spanish/English interpreters (Personal communication, March 29, 1985).

One question which often arises is whether the AOUSC will develop and implement additional certification programs for the federal courts in other languages and, if so, in which languages. According to Jon Leeth, a team in New Mexico has just completed work on a Navaho/English court terminology glossary with the intent of developing a certification examination in Navaho/English. It is not yet certain, however, when this project will be undertaken.

Another recent development at the AOUSC was the awarding of a contract to the University of Arizona to develop the materials for and administer the Spanish/English Federal Court Interpreter Certification Examination. University personnel will henceforth take full responsibility for sending out the announcements of subsequent examinations and processing the applications received. Moreover, a team of experts will assemble at Arizona each year to write a new version of the test. Its work has already begun, as the AOUSC has authorized scheduling the 1985 examinations, the fifth round of federal certification testing. The written portion of the examination will be administered throughout the country in June, and the oral part will follow sometime in late August for those candidates who successfully complete the written test.

Continuing with my discussion of federal statutes which address interpretation services in the courts, I wish to draw attention to the following section in the Code of Federal Regulations:

> Interpreter.
>
> Any person acting as an interpreter in a hearing under this part shall be sworn to interpret and translate accurately, unless the interpreter is an employee of the [Immigration and Naturalization] Service, in which event no such oath shall be required (8 CFR Sec. 242.12, Jan. 1, 1985; 22 FR 9797, Dec. 6, 1957).

Robert L. Miller wrote an interesting article in 1983 which described a deportation hearing at which he was a spectator. The interpreter, as an employee of the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), was not required to swear that his interpretation would be accurate. This difference between the INS employee and other interpreters implies that the INS employee is more trustworthy. During the course of the proceedings, the person being investigated tried to explain (at two separate times during the hearing) that he, in fact, had a "permiso." Miller writes:

> The interpreter failed on both occasions to interpret what the respondent had said. In response to a question as to whether he would be willing to depart voluntarily, the respondent answered with his own question "don't my three children born here count for anything?" The interpreter, however, translated "can I take my three children with me?" (Miller 1983: 4)

Miller understands Spanish and so he was able to pinpoint the faulty interpretation ("to the consternation of the interpreter") (1983:4). However, he makes an excellent point. The judge did not understand the respondent's answers which were spoken in Spanish. As a result, the court had to rely entirely on the incorrect, incomplete interpretation provided by the INS interpreter and base its decision solely on the interpreter's translation of the testimony.

Moreover, Miller rightly raises the question of the quality of interpretation services when less common languages require the use of an interpreter. In the case of Swahili or Tagalog, the respondent and the interpreter may be the only two people in the courtroom who speak the language. Therefore, there would be no means whatsoever of comparing the foreign language version with the interpreted version. Perhaps requiring the INS interpreter to swear to provide a truthful translation of the testimony would not change or improve the situation. What is critical here, however, as in any case, is the need for the ability to verify that what a witness has said has been correctly and completely translated by the interpreter. In this connection, Miller closes by advocating

> . . . that some independent third-person interpreter also be present to assure than [sic] some head is not improvidently cut off because some part of the question or answer is left out or changed (4).

Unfortunately, in an otherwise pertinent and timely article, Miller fails to make it clear whether the INS interpreter was simply incompetent or if he acted in bad faith to prejudice the case against the respondent by taking the side of his employer.

Many states have statutes which provide for the appointment of interpreters. Most of them are modeled on Rule 28(b) of the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure. Unfortunately, the state statutes and accompanying relevant cases are too numerous to address within the scope of this paper.

III. Constitutional Bases for Appointment of Court Interpreters

A. Federal Developments: Case Law

Portions of two amendments to the Federal Constitution are often cited in both federal and state level criminal cases as justifying appointment of court interpreters. The Sixth Amendment of the Federal Constitution states, in pertinent part:

> In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to. . . be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his Defence.

This amendment is the major federal source of the right to an interpreter. The states are bound to obey the dictates of the Sixth Amendment due to its incorporation into the Fourteenth Amendment through the due process clause. Section I of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution states, in pertinent part:

> . . . No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

During the past fifteen years, the federal courts have grown increasingly more sensitive to the plight of the non-English-speaking defendant.

In 1970, a decision was handed down by the United States Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit which has been cited hundreds of times subsequently in similar cases. That decision was in the case of United States ex rel. Negron v. New York 434 F2d. 386 (2d Cir. 1970). The Second Circuit granted a habeus corpus petition, stating that an indigent defendant who has extreme English comprehension and communication problems is entitled to the services of an interpreter as a constitutional right. If the court is notified that the accused does not speak or understand the English language, then it is the court's responsibility to "make unmistakeably clear to [the defendant] that he has the right to have a competent translator assist him, at state expense if need be, throughout his trial" (391). In Negron, when the interpreter was present in the courtroom, "she never translated English testimony for Negron while the trial was in progress" (388). Only summaries were provided to the defendant at intervals throughout the trial. The opportunities for Negron to communicate with his attorney, witnesses, and other officers of the court through an interpreter were "spasmodic and irregular" (388). In fact, there were only two brief recesses of 10-20 minutes throughout Negron's 4-day trial during which witnesses' testimony was summarized by the interpreter. The Second Circuit opinion stated:

> Apart from [the interpreter's] occasional ex post facto resumes -- the detail and accuracy of which is not revealed in any record -- none of this [state's testimony against him] . . .was comprehensible to Negron (388).
>
> However astute [the interpreter's] summaries may have been, they could not do service as a means by which Negron could understand the precise nature of the testimony against him. . . (389).

Negron, then, was not able to respond to testimony as it was given. He was also deprived of attorney-client communication which, among other things, prevented him from contributing to his own defense. The Second Circuit viewed the provision of an interpreter "as a matter of simple humaneness" (390) and stated that "Negron deserved more than to sit in total incomprehension as the trial proceeded" (390). Finally, Negron himself spoke on the matter during a hearing before Judge Bartels. He testified:

> I knew that I would have liked to know what was happening but I did not know that they were supposed to tell me (390).

The year 1973 saw another case during which the question of the right to an interpreter arose, but the result was not a completely happy one. In United States v. Carrion 488 F.2d 12 (1st Cir. 1973), cert denied, 416 U.S. 907 (1974), the right to an interpreter even if the defendant has limited ability to communicate in and comprehend English was addressed. The First Circuit stated that it was the responsibility of the trial court to investigate the defendant's English language ability and, in doing so, determine whether an interpreter was required. It also indicated that the defendant's right to confront the witnesses against him "would be meaningless if the accused could not understand their testimony" (14). A regard similar to that of the Second Circuit in Negron was expressed by the First Circuit in Carrion when it examined the concept of fundamental fairness:

> The right to an interpreter rests most fundamentally, however, on the notion that no defendant should face the Kafkaesque spectre of an incomprehensible ritual which may terminate in punishment (14).

Even after what appeared to be a rather enlightened look at the issue of the right to an interpreter, the First Circuit affirmed Carrion's conviction, but also stated: "Whenever put on notice that there may be some significant language difficulty, the court should make such a determination of need" (15).

B. State Criminal Cases Which Refer to the Federal Constitution

In many state court cases, the reasoning parallels the already stated reasoning in the federal court cases regarding the Sixth and Fourteenth Amendments. In State v. Vasquez 101

Utah 444, 121 P.2d 903, a 1942 case, the Utah Supreme Court held that the trial court's denial of an interpreter to Vasquez, who neither spoke nor understood English, was a reversible error. In its appellate review, the Utah Supreme Court addressed the right of confrontation. It rightly pointed out that just because the defendant is able to see and hear a witness does not guarantee his/her understanding of the proceedings. The Utah Supreme Court opinion stated:

> If the defendant cannot understand what the witness is relating, from some points of view it is analogous to being out of hearing. . . . Suppose a defendant were placed in a transparent compartment where he could see all that took place, yet was deprived of hearing what was said because all sound was cut off, could it be said that such a situation were less than a deprivation of the constitutional right of confrontation? (905)

Furthermore, the Utah Supreme Court, in a rare instance, "put the shoe on the other foot" when it commented on the hypothetical situation of the attorneys, judge and jury not understanding a witness' testimony:

> A witness fluently giving a narrative, understood by him but not by the court or jury, may, so far as reaching a comprehensive result is concerned, be telling of the gold, gum, salt, and ivory of Timbucktu. May it be said to be a fair trial if a defendant is in the same position? (906)

The Arizona Supreme Court found that the defendant in State v. Natividad 111 Ariz. 191, 526 P.2d 730 (Ariz. S. Ct. 1974) was denied due process when the trial court did not provide him with an interpreter. No interpreter was present at the preliminary hearing, but the prosecutor did consent to short recesses so that the defense attorney "could attempt to explain the proceedings and testimony to his client" (732). However, the Arizona Supreme Court opinion states that there was "[no] evidence as to whether the appellant's attorney was able to speak Spanish" (733). The judgement against Natividad was reversed when the Arizona Supreme Court found that he was denied his constitutional guarantee of the right to cross-examine, the right to confront the witnesses against him, and the right to be present at his own trial. Judge Lorna Lockwood wrote:

> The inability of a defendant to understand the proceedings would be not only fundamentally unfair but particularly inappropriate in a state where a significant minority of the population is burdened with the handicap of being unable to effectively communicate in our national language. A defendant's inability to spontaneously understand testimony being given would undoubtedly limit his attorney's effectiveness, especially on cross-examination (733).

Natividad was remanded to the trial court with the instructions that it investigate the language difficulties of the defendant.

In a 1977 case, Gonzales v. State 372 A.2d 191 (De. S. Ct., 1977), the arresting police officer served as the accused's interpreter both at the time of the arrest and at the trial. Although many cases have been documented in which the use of ad hoc interpreters was not viewed as an abuse of discretion on the part of the trial court, the Delaware Supreme Court recognized that the defendant's case could be prejudiced by the use of such an interpreter. In reversing the judgement against Gonzales, the Court wrote:

> We hold that there is an inherent possibility of bias, and a violation of due process rights, whenever an arresting police officer is called upon to serve as the defendant's interpreter at trial (192).

> It was reversible error for the Trial Judge not to appoint an unbiased and impartial interpreter for the defendant or, alternatively, to grant a continuance of the case until the defendant could procure the services of such a person (193).

C. State Cases Which Refer to a State Constitution

A number of states, responding to particular needs within their jurisdiction, have enacted statutes requiring interpreters in various situations. The most far-reaching of these enactments are constitutional provisions. Currently, the California and New Mexico Constitutions require interpreters. Article I, Section 14 of the State of California Constitution, adopted November 5, 1974, states that:

> [A] person unable to understand English who is charged with a crime has a right to an interpreter throughout the proceedings.

Article II, Section 14 of the State of New Mexico Constitution states, in pertinent part:

> In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall have the right to appear and defend himself in person, and by counsel; to demand the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have the charge and testimony interpreted to him in a language that he understands. . . .

In addition to the right of an interpreter provided for in the California Constitution, the wording of the Constitution has very serious implications. The phrase, "throughout the proceedings" has been the cause of many reversals by the higher courts, even though an interpreter (or two or more) has been provided for the defendant(s) during the trial. Several recent cases have referred to the "borrowing" of the defendant's interpreter (the interpreter who is seated at counsel table, simultaneously interpreting the ongoing courtroom proceedings for the benefit of the defendant) when non-English-speaking witnesses have been called to testify. The defendant's interpreter then becomes what Chang and Araujo call a "witness interpreter" (1975:802) when he/she leaves the accused's side to work at the witness stand. The California appellate courts have stated that, during this time, the defendant is deprived of his/her right to communicate with counsel. Furthermore, exchanges between the judge and the attorneys and the judge and the witnesses, for example, are not interpreted for the defendant while his/her interpreter assists a witness.

In People v. Menchaca 194 Cal. Rptr. 691 (Cal.App. 2 Dist.-1983), the judgement was reversed by a strict application of the phrase "throughout the proceedings". The opinion stated:

> . . . we conclude that a third-party witness interpreter cannot effectively discharge the translating responsibilities owed to a defendant. Moreover, a defendant's "presence", his sensibility and comprehension of the criminal trial process, is impaired in other ways by sole reliance on a witness interpreter. When acting in that capacity, an interpreter does not provide the defendant of the court's rulings or of open-court colloquy between the bench and counsel. These are integral parts of the "proceedings" (694).

As well, in a similar case, People v. Mata Aguilar 677 P.2d 1198 (Cal. S. Ct. 1984), an interpreter was taken from the defendant's side to interpret for the testimony of two Spanish-speaking witnesses for the prosecution. The California Supreme Court found "constitutional error in the proceedings" (1199). Justice Cruz Reynoso, writing for the majority in the 5-2 opinion, stated:

> California's Constitution does not provide a half measure of protection. Thus, the "borrowing" of the interpreter, the accused's only means of communicating with defense counsel and understanding the proceedings, was a denial of a constitutional right (1201).

Although Aguilar may have been able to understand the Spanish-speakers' testimony, there is no guarantee that the defendant was able to clearly hear or comprehend the questions which were asked in English during that period of the trial (Carrizosa 1984: 1). In reversing the judgement, Justice Reynoso also wrote:

> In the ethnic richness of California, a multiplicity of languages has been nurtured. Historically, many peoples speaking diverse tongues have formed large portions of our population. The people of this state, through the clear and express terms of their Constitution, require that all persons tried in a California Court understand what is happening about them, for them, and against them. Who would have it otherwise? (1205)

Finally, in People v. Rodriguez 205 Cal. Rptr. 556 (Cal. App. 2 Dist. 1984), there were two defendants. Each defendant had been provided with his own interpreter; however, when 3 Spanish-speaking witnesses testified, one of the defendant's interpreters was used as a witness interpreter, thus leaving only one interpreter at counsel table. Once again, the appellate court found constitutional error in this procedure and reversed the judgements against the defendants. The opinion stated:

> This is unacceptable because while the interpreter was acting on behalf of one defendant as a "defense interpreter", the other defendant would be without a "proceedings interpreter". . . .[T]he constitutional right to an interpreter cannot be impaired by requiring joint use of the same interpreter at counsel table (560).

The California Constitution is exemplary in its provision of comprehensive protection of non-English-speaking defendants in criminal proceedings. It not only furnishes interpretation services (which is an accomplishment in itself), but it mandates the use of more than one interpreter should the trial require this step.

IV. The New Jersey Supreme Court Task Force on Interpreter and Translation Services

At present, the State of New Jersey is looking into the status of court interpretation services in its judicial system. New Jersey's recent work in this area represents a well thought-out and organized effort.

A. Background

The New Jersey Judiciary is very independent with respect to the administration of its affairs (Lee 1983: 2). Administrative authority is provided to the Judiciary by the 1948 New Jersey State Constitution. Article 6, Section 3, Paragraph 3 states:

> The Supreme Court shall make rules governing the administration of all courts in the state and, subject to the law, the practice and procedure in all such courts.

In addition, Article 6, Section 7, Paragraph 1 mandates:

> The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court shall be the administrative head of all the courts in the state. He shall appoint an Administrative Director to serve at his pleasure.

The New Jersey Supreme Court exercises its autonomous administrative authority through (1) rules (which have the same effects as laws); (2) the Administrative Code of the New Jersey Judiciary (some sections of which are still in development); (3) directives; and (4) standards and guidelines (Lee 1983: 3).

B. Creation of the Task Force

On May 19, 1982, the Chief Justice of the New Jersey Supreme Court, Robert N. Wilentz, announced the establishment of a 13-member Task Force on Interpreter and Translation Services

> . . . to evaluate existing interpreter and translation services in the court system, and make recommendations to ensure equal access to the courts for those who do not speak English or who have an auditory handicap (News Release, May 19, 1982).

In creating the Task Force, Judge Wilentz stated:

> We have been able to obtain the services of an outstanding group of people who are extremely knowledgeable on these issues and I look forward to their report and recommendations (News Release, May 19, 1982).

1. A Historical Perspective

It is useful to examine the origins of the New Jersey Supreme Court Task Force. Almost 11 years ago, the Administrative Office of the Courts of New Jersey awarded a research grant to a team of investigators at Glassboro State College. The research project was directed by Leonard J. Hippchen. In general, the study undertook to examine the utilization of bilingual interpreters in the New Jersey court system. More specifically, the goals of the project were:

> (1) To conduct a research study of the problem and needs for bilingual court interpreters in the criminal courts of New Jersey. . . .
>
> (2) To develop a recommended state-wide plan for the recruitment, training and certification of bilingual court interpreters, including:

> . . . d) orientation and in-service training; e) standards, job descriptions and classifications, examinations of competency and qualifications, and procedures for examination and certification.
>
> (3) To develop a working handbook for bilingual court interpreters, identifying specific tasks and responsibilities at important process points, from arrest to sentencing. . . .
>
> (4) To develop a guide and procedural instructions manual for use in a courtroom and in each court-related department, which describes court interpreter duties and responsibilities. . . . The manual was also to include recommendations for . . . bilingual forms for notifying Spanish-speaking persons (Hippchen 1977:259-60).

The research project was conducted from July 1, 1974 to December 31, 1974.

Of particular interest is the fact that, even though the Hippchen study conducted rather extensive research on a number of salient issues, nothing was ever done to implement any of its recommendations. One can only speculate that perhaps funding was not readily available at that time or that those in power when the project was completed were not interested in or sensitive to the problems identified by the research.

More recently, in 1982, a very important case was decided by the New Jersey Supreme Court. In Alfonso v. Board of Review 89 N. J. 41 (1982), the Court examined the right to notice in Spanish. The 5-2 ruling stated that the use of such bilingual documents is not required by the constitution. Chief Justice Wilentz, dissenting, wrote the following:

> Due process requires notice. . . . When the State knows the claimant or litigant does not understand English, the State has the obligation to provide notice that can be understood. The constitutional

> guarantees of non-English speaking persons cannot be left to the protection of hoped-for humanitarian acts. These guarantees are theirs by right, not by charity (60).

Alfonso was decided only three weeks before Chief Justice Wilentz announced the creation of the New Jersey Supreme Court Task Force on Interpreter and Translation Services.

2. New Jersey's Linguistic Diversity

The status of interpreter and translator services in the New Jersey judicial system "is an area of concern for the court, particularly in light of the recent increase in New Jersey's non-English speaking population" (News Release 1982, quoting Judge Wilentz). The 1980 Census figures indicate that New Jersey has a Hispanic population of approximately 492,000 (Statistical Abstract of the United States:1985). As well, additional census figures "projected that 14.7% of New Jersey's residents five years old or older speak a language other than English at home" (Lee 1983:5).

(This percentage includes Hispanics, Italians, Germans, and Poles, to name only a few of the non-English-speaking groups.) Also taking into consideration groups such as (1) immigrants who have arrived in the United States since 1980; (2) deaf individuals; and (3) undocumented aliens, the Task Force estimates that "between 18% and 20% of persons five years old or older in New Jersey speak a language other than English at home" (Lee 1983:5). Within the state, linguistic minorities are found to be unevenly divided among counties. For example, Hudson

County is 26% Hispanic. One can easily conclude from the above data that New Jersey is characterized by a rich linguistic diversity which represents a significant percentage of the total population. In fact, during the course of its inquiry, the Task Force has discovered that approximately 8% of all New Jersey courtroom proceedings require the services of an interpreter.

3. Mandates to and Agenda of the Task Force

Four mandates were outlined to the Task Force by Chief Justice Wilentz:

> 1. To identify all areas within the Judiciary where equal access to all courts may not be fully available due to linguistic barriers;
>
> 2. To document the nature and extent of those linguistic barriers presently existing and to evaluate current policies and practices regarding the interpreting and translating services;
>
> 3. To recommend policies and ongoing programs to ensure equal and adequate access to linguistic minorities, including the physically handicapped;
>
> 4. To submit strategies for implementing these policies and programs (Lee 1983:8).

When one compares the above mandates with the goals of the Hippchen study outlined earlier, it is quite evident that many of the same concerns are included in both projects.

According to its agenda, the scope of the Task Force's investigative work is broad and far-reaching. For example, a total of 22 "Background Reports" have been written on topics including "Legislative History of Court Interpreting in New Jersey", "Interpreting and Translating as Professions", "Language Rights in the United States", and "The Cross-Cultural Delivery of Human Services." Additional Background Reports examine the perspectives of judges, court interpreters, public defenders, bilingual attorneys, prosecutors, and trial court administrators on the present status and quality of court interpretation services in the State of New Jersey.

The Supreme Court Task Force is scrutinizing interpreter services in all of New Jersey's state and local courts. It is researching in a very detailed manner the requisite qualifications for a highly professional interpretation staff. In this connection, the Task Force is investigating the need for interpreter training as well as for certification procedures (Project Outline 1982:2).

Since the work of the Task Force will remain largely confidential until the Final Report has been submitted to the Supreme Court and, in turn, released to the public at large, it is rather difficult to speculate on what its findings and recommendations will be. (The Final Report is currently in preparation, and is expected in the next several months.) Most of us who have been involved in its work and have followed its progress are optimistic about the future of interpretation services in the New Jersey judicial system. Let us all hope that the words of Robert Joe Lee will soon become a reality: ". . . that New Jersey [will take] a leadership role in ensuring equal access to the courts for all linguistic minorities" (1983:17).

V. Why Court Interpreter Training is Needed

A. Introduction

The Court Interpreters Act of 1978 has helped to establish a professional status for interpreters in the federal courts. The Act has also contributed to a greater awareness on the part of court and non-court personnel of the role and responsibilities of the interpreter in a courtroom. It has established very high standards for court interpreters in Spanish/English through its certification program. In doing so, this statute has made great strides in the war against due process violations when non-English-speaking defendants are involved. In fact, a number of states (notably New Jersey and Texas) as well as the District of Columbia are currently considering legislative and judicial proposals modeled on the Court Interpreters Act in an attempt to better address the problems of non-English-speakers in the courts at the state and local levels. Even though the Court Interpreters Act has forced the federal courts to take interpretation services more seriously and has, in only 7 years, had far-reaching consequences, it is by no means complete in its mandates for the courts.

For example, the Act does not provide for training of interpreters to be used in the federal courts (See, for example, Arjona 1983:4). However, of interest is the fact that all of the announcements for the "Court Interpreters Certification Written Examination, Spanish/English" contain the following paragraph:

> Qualifications: There are no formal educational requirements for certification, either in languages or in interpreting. However, the difficulty of the bilingual examination is at the college degree level of proficiency

> and successful completion of the oral skills portion would normally require prior training or professional experience in simultaneous, consecutive, and summary interpreting. (emphasis added)

In sum, then, the AOUSC indicates that "training or professional experience" in interpretation would be necessary for most people to pass the Certification Examination. On the other hand, the Court Interpreters Act does not stipulate that pertinent training courses or programs be developed in order to prepare people to take the test.

During a March 8, 1985 telephone conversation with Jon Leeth of the AOUSC, he told me that, at present, no training courses or programs are envisioned under the auspices of the AOUSC.

B. Required Training for Court Interpreters

1. Qualifications

Before a prospective interpreter can even think of undertaking training, he/she must be bi- or multi-lingual; that is, be able to express him/herself equally fluently in those languages he/she wishes to use in interpreting. In addition to a high level of competence in at least two languages, broad knowledge of the cultures in question is imperative. A candidate's personality is something that must be considered. Interpreters generally agree that one must be rather aggressive and extroverted, intellectually curious, and capable of dealing with the unexpected (Schweda-Nicholson 1984).

2. Course Content

The very most basic content areas to be addressed in any court interpretation training course or program are:

(1) Development of simultaneous and consecutive (with and without notes) interpretation skills as well as sight translation and tape transcription;

(2) Legal terminology;

(3) Understanding of the concepts behind the law;

(4) Courtroom procedure;

(5) The professional role of the interpreter;

(6) Duties and responsibilities of the interpreter;

(7) Ethics, including confidentiality.

Training in simultaneous and consecutive interpretation, sight translation, and tape transcription is best obtained through a specialized course of study. A small number of court interpretation courses/programs currently exists. (See Section VI of the current paper.) As to the technique of teaching the requisite skills, much has been written. (See, for example, Delisle 1981, Gerver and Sinaiko 1978, Herbert 1952, Schweda-Nicholson 1985, and Seleskovitch 1978, 1975.) The professional interpreter is just that; a well-trained, highly qualified person capable of providing a complete and accurate interpretation, whether at an international conference or in a courtroom. There is some overlap between the training of the conference interpreter and the court interpreter, most specifically in the area of mastering basic interpretation skills.

Knowledge of legal terminology, the concepts underlying the law, courtroom procedure and the structure of both the American and foreign legal systems is imperative (Berreby 1982; Frankenthaler and Zahler 1984: 87-88).

One may group Points 5, 6, and 7 above together for purposes of a general discussion of the interpreter's function and position within the judicial system. As a result of the formal nature of courtroom proceedings and the seriousness of the potential consequences, training in duties, responsibilities, and ethics must be an integral part of any court interpreter program.

Fortunately, a number of excellent "codes of ethics" for court interpreters currently exist. The Preamble to the California Court Interpreters Association (CCIA) Code of Ethics very effectively describes the interpreter's critical contribution to courtroom proceedings:

> The court interpreter, as the only medium of communication between the parties involved, plays a vital role in the administration and preservation of justice. The fulfillment of this part requires an understanding by the interpreter of the difficult task to be performed, and the fundamental ethical principles to be obeyed (n.d.:1).

As well, the Code of Ethics of the court interpreters in the Los Angeles County Superior Court includes a section entitled, "Standards of Court Conduct and Professional Responsibilities" (Almeida and Zahler 1977:6-13). The Agricultural Labor Relations Board Interpreter Code of Ethics of the State of California is based on the CCIA Code of Ethics and also on Section 18.3 of the Standards of Judicial Administration Recommended by the

Judicial Council of California. There is no "code of ethics" issued by the AOUSC for the federally certified Spanish/English court interpreters. The above "codes of ethics" discuss such relevant topics as conflicts of interest, confidentiality, how to interpret during testimony, and the importance of continuing education to constantly upgrade skills and knowledge. Court interpreters are also ethically bound to accept only those assignments for which they are qualified, to correct any mistakes that are made immediately, to interpret verbatim what is being said, and not to paraphrase or explain. The goal of court interpretation is for the defendant to hear the trial as he/she would hear it if the trial were being conducted in his/her native language. The Court interpreter's Manual of the Court of Common Pleas and Municipal Court, City of Philadelphia states:

> . . . [T]he interpreter's job is to interpret everything which the defendant, judge, attorneys, or others present would understand if no language barrier existed (n.d.:1). (emphasis in original)

(For more discussion of this issue, see Carrizosa 1984:15; Frankenthaler 1984:85; and "Court Interpreting: From Nice Little Ladies to Navahos" 1984:2.)

If one aims, then, for the goal of native language equivalency, it is important not to go beyond it through explanation or paraphrase. Dena Kohn states:

> The interpreter must never and should never edit, select and improve. A good interpreter repeats nonsense when it is nonsense, repeats lucidity if it's lucidity (Berreby 1982:3).

One must remember that many Americans whose native language is English have great difficulty following legal language and understanding the concepts behind the law. In this connection, the non-English-speaker should not have an advantage over the English-speaker in courtroom proceedings through explanations and clarifications provided by an interpreter. Astiz writes:

> I do not believe that the criminal justice system should do for the non-English speaking individual what it does not do for the English-speaking majority; in other words, deficiencies . . . in the criminal justice system that are not caused by somebody's inability to speak English can not be solved for a certain group only (1980:3).

Finally, Judge Ricardo M. Urbina of the Superior Court of the District of Columbia, the only Hispanic judge in the city of Washington, addressed himself specifically to Hispanics' encounters with the courts:

> We are not trying to give Hispanics more than what they deserve. We just want to bring parity into the criminal justice system where Hispanics are concerned (Valente 1983:A-12).

The case for professional interpreter training can only be further strengthened by citing several examples of unethical behavior. The judge, jury and attorneys assess the credibility of a non-English-speaking witness not only through his/her demeanor but through the interpreter's language and demeanor as well (See, for example, Bergenfield 1978:552). In United States v. Anguloa 598 F2d 1182 (1979), some difficulties arose while the defendant was testifying through an interpreter. The judge suggested that the prosecutor and interpreter proceed "slowly and bit by bit" (1184). In response to the judge's request, the interpreter stated: "It's not necessarily the questions. It's the way the defendant changes the subjects into different things at times" (1184). The judge then instructed the interpreter to provide a literal translation of what the defendant was saying. The interpreter responded: "He says a lot of mumbo-jumbo that doesn't mean a lot of things" (1184). The judge, of course, ordered that the interpreter's disparaging remarks about the defendant be stricken from the record. However, the jury did hear these negative statements. The judge was concerned about the jury allowing the remarks to influence its assessment of the defendant's credibility. The judge dismissed the interpreter and replaced her with a new one. Before the trial continued, however, the judge instructed the jury:

> Obviously, an interpreter is not a participant in the trial. An interpreter only really acts as a transmission belt or telephone. In one ear should come in English and out comes Spanish. . . . [A]ny remarks, if any she did make, with respect to the witness other than translating his answers or his statements as best she could or as best she thought she could, you must disregard entirely (Reporter's Transcript: vol.III, pp. 105-07).

As well, in People v. Starling, the interpreter was frequently reprimanded by the judge for carrying on personally initiated conversations with the accused. The above examples clearly illustrate why training in courtroom ethics must be included in any court interpretation course of study.

VI. The Current Status of Court Interpreter Training

The Court Interpreters Act of 1978 does not provide for court interpreter training, nor does the AOUSC have plans to do so in the future. However, the need for competent interpreters in the state and local courts is growing daily. Where can bilingual individuals who are equally fluent in both languages obtain court interpretation training? Presently, there are a limited number of courses and programs in existence. These court interpreter educational efforts have been made only recently, during the past two years.

A. Academic Year Courses/Programs

Within its Master of Arts Program in Intercultural Communication, the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS) developed two court interpreter training courses. They were first offered in 1983 and continue to be part of a diverse curriculum. Course topics include an overview of the United States criminal justice system and legal terminology. The San Diego State University Department of Spanish and Portuguese offers an undergraduate certificate in Court Interpreting. Students complete 15 credits, only 6 of which deal specifically with court interpretation. Florida International University (FIU) currently has a 33-credit certificate program in court interpretation and legal translation. The coursework includes training in simultaneous and consecutive interpretation skills, specialized skills for court interpreting, and additional related offerings. Very recently, a court interpretation training program was launched at Miami Dade Community College in an attempt to meet the tremendous need for Spanish/English interpreters in the South Florida courts.

B. Summer Courses

The MIIS offered two courses in court interpretation for the first time in the summer of 1983. During the summer of 1984, it held an 8-week training program which was divided into two sections: Session I from June 11-July 6, and Session II from July 9-August 3. This program will be offered once again during the summer of 1985: Session I from June 17-July 12; Session II from July 15-August 12. In order to register for the program, students must have "superior knowledge of Spanish and English." As well, the MIIS prefers that court interpretation students have a Bachelor's Degree. Course content includes training in simultaneous and consecutive interpretation, sight translation, the American legal system, courtroom procedure, slang, and non-standard Spanish.

In 1983, the first University of Arizona Summer Institute for Court Interpretation was held in Tucson from June 20-July 15. The Summer Institute was again offered in 1984 from June 18-July 13. In addition, the first ever Institute for the Training of Trainers of Court Interpreters was held during summer, 1984 from June 25-July 13, also in Tucson. Unlike the Summer Institute (which trains Spanish/English bilinguals in the techniques of court interpretation), the Institute for Trainers brought together experienced, practicing court interpreters as well as academics already involved in conference interpreter training. The goal of the Trainers' Institute was to prepare the participants (some of whom came from as far away as Australia) to educate others to be court interpreters when they returned to their respective cities and countries. The author was a participant in the first Institute for the Training of Trainers. As an educator of conference interpreters, she was pleased to have learned much about courtroom procedure, legal terminology, and the numerous ethical considerations involved.

Both the Summer Institute and the Institute for Trainers will be offered at the University of Arizona in Tucson during the summer of 1985. In addition, for the first time, to respond to a need for court interpreter training on the East Coast, the Summer Institute will also be held at Montclair State College in Upper Montclair, New Jersey, from June 14-July 6. The author looks forward to participating as a faculty member in the Institute at Montclair State.

Finally, a general interpretation and translation course as well as an advanced court interpretation course were offered at the University of California at Berkeley in the summer of 1983.

C. Special Court Interpretation Courses and Programs

An experimental one-quarter course, "Introduction to Court Interpretation", was offered during Winter Quarter 1985 at Georgia State University in Atlanta, Georgia by Alba Males, a federally certified Spanish/English court interpreter. Students met for five hours per week. Classwork included a broad overview of the legal system, with an emphasis on courtroom procedure and ethics. According to the instructor, the coursework was prepared according to the various stages of a trial, from the complaint to sentencing. As a result, many areas were covered, such as pre-trial motions, motions to suppress, bond hearings, and so on. Guest speakers (attorneys, court administrators, Legal Aid volunteers, and a Drug Enforcement Agency (DEA) agent) participated in skits involving, for example, cross-examination of witnesses. The skits (which were a highlight of the class) were videotaped for use with subsequent classes. Since the course was experimental, it has not yet been decided when it will be offered in the future. However, it is possible that the class will be taught in 1986 during Winter Quarter once again.

In 1981, the National Judicial College on the Reno Campus of the University of Nevada sponsored two 3-day seminars for court interpreters. As well, a one-semester Spanish/English court interpretation class was offered during 1981, 1982, and 1983 at Rice University in Houston, Texas. The course, entitled "Court Judiciary Interpreting," included basic courtroom terminology, an overview of the judicial system structure, and extensive interpretation practice through role-playing in scenarios. According to Eta Trabing, the course instructor, these scenarios were acted out in county courtrooms which were made available to the class after hours. In this way, students were able to learn much about courtroom procedure (Personal communication, June 10, 1985). A $100,000 grant provided for the development of the Hispanic Community Program Internship in Law from 1978-1981 at Montclair State College. Spanish/English bilingual students are trained in basic interpretation and translation skills so they may assist indigent Hispanics who have legal problems.

D. Future Plans for Court Interpreter Training

The University of Delaware Certificate Program in Conference Interpretation has plans to expand sometime in the next several years to offer court interpretaion training as well. The Conference Interpretation Program at Delaware was established in 1979.

The one-year, 12-credit series of four courses has been offered continuously since that time during the academic year. Our working languages are English, Spanish, and French. Considering the great need for Spanish/English interpreters, our court interpretation training courses would be offered for those languages only. There are currently no federally certified Spanish/English court interpreters in the entire State of Delaware, yet Wilmington alone has a significant Hispanic population. The author has been working with the Wilmington Department of Justice, hoping to secure funding so as to improve the caliber of court interpreters in the state and local courts. Currently, the Delaware courts rely heavily on the services of volunteers and also on court personnel who are employed in other capacities.

In the spring of 1984, the Haitian community of Dade County, Florida, approached Florida International University (FIU) with a request to establish a Haitian Creole/English translation program. FIU has submitted its proposal to the Title VI International Research Studies Program. With the large numbers of Haitian refugees in the Miami area, such a program could certainly help to break down the existing language barriers in the courts as well as in other areas of everyday life.

VII. Conclusion

The current paper has examined a number of areas which pertain to interpretation services, with an emphasis on the criminal justice system. Although the criminal courts were the focus of this study, perhaps a word about developments in the civil courts is in order.

The Court Interpreters Act provides for court-appointed interpreters in civil suits only when they are initiated by the United States Government. In Jara v. Municipal Court 21 Cal. 3d 181, 578 P.2d 94, 145 Cal. Rptr. 847 (1978), cert. denied, 99 S. Ct. 833 (1979), California was the first jurisdiction to address the issue of a civil defendant's constitutional right to an interpreter at the state's expense. The appellate court overturned the lower court decision, stating that Jara did have the right to an interpreter. However, the California Supreme Court reversed the Court of Appeals ruling and affirmed the decision of the lower court which had originally denied Jara a court-appointed interpreter at the county's expense. It is worthy of note that the California Supreme Court did not address the issues of due process and equal protection. In such a situation, the court's reasoning should parallel the reasoning of the criminal courts, which requires an interpreter. If the California Supreme Court had addressed these critical issues, it would have been obvious that Jara was entitled to an interpreter during his trial.

Even in light of the Jara decision, one senses a growing concern regarding the right to an interpreter in civil ajudications. In addition, the legal community is becoming more sensitized to the importance of interpreters in non-trial court proceedings such as competency hearings, and in pre-trial criminal proceedings such as arraignments and bond hearings. Finally, the need for interpreters in administrative hearings (i.e., custody battles in Family Court and landlord/tenant disputes) is glaring.

In all of the above situations, an attorney is usually present. Interpreters would also be advisable in Small Claims Court where the parties are, for the most part, not represented by attorneys.

It is this author's firm belief that the trend in the above areas is moving strongly toward the assistance of compensated, academically trained interpreters. Moreover, slowly but surely, qualified court interpreters are being viewed as the competent professionals they are. This attitude is due, in large part, to the rigorous standards established by the AOUSC in its Spanish/English certification program. In the past three years as well, the opportunities for court interpretation training have grown from nothing whatsoever to several summer and academic year programs. As individual states enact legislation modeled on the Court Interpreters Act, the need for highly qualified interpreters will grow. As a result, specialized court interpretation training programs will be very much in demand. In light of these recent and expected developments, the future of professional court interpretation services looks brighter every day.

Table I

Spanish Interpreter Use

	District Courts	Bankruptcy Courts
1979	25,986	301
1980	23,394	313
1981	29,754	1,336
1982	30,372	34
1983	38,224	96

Sources: Annual Report of the Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts 1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, and 1984.

Table II

State	Number of Fed. Cert. Interps.	Hispanic Pop. (in thousands)
Arizona	8	441
California	68	4,544
Florida	31	858
Illinois	3	636
New Jersey	5	492
New Mexico	7	477
New York	23	1,659
Texas	28	2,986

Sources: Certified Spanish/English Interpreters: 1984
Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1985

Notes

[1] Before beginning my discussion, I wish to make it very clear that I am not an attorney. The survey of legislation and case law I present is by no means exhaustive and is not meant to be.

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GENERATING INTERNSHIP OPPORTUNITIES FOR BUSINESS STUDENTS WITH FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCY:

A NETWORKING APPROACH

By

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GENERATING INTERNSHIP OPPORTUNITIES FOR BUSINESS STUDENTS WITH FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCY: A NETWORKING APPROACH

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Our university's quest for internships is mainly a result of our two-year old B.A. program in International Business with a concentration in French, German, or Spanish. This is an interdisciplinary, cooperative degree sponsored jointly by the School of Business Administration and Economics and the School of Humanities and Social Sciences. Our program is presently expanding to encompass Portuguese and Japanese concentrations as well, and we hope to accomodate Chinese in the near future. Our geographic location in Southern California naturally turns our perspective toward the Pacific Rim.

We currently have about 230 students enrolled in the International Business and Foreign Language degree program. The mandatory internship of four months in which the students must utilize the foreign language in a business context constitutes our greatest challenge as far as the program is concerned. The idea of situating internships for considerable numbers of students still appears overwhelming at times, but we have used the past two years of "lead-time" to initiate and consolidate existing structures to deal with the situation. This has entailed a multi-faceted approach since we need both local or U.S.-situated internships for our students who do not choose to go abroad (or whom we would not necessarily recommend for a traineeship abroad) and also for foreign interns whom we place on a reciprocal basis; we also seek foreign internship opportunities for our students who show the most promise. To facilitate our efforts, we have in all cases tried to utilize existing structures to maximum advantage, and hopefully some of our techniques can be of help if you are contemplating an internship program. The start-up costs in time, energy, and communications costs can be considerable, but so are the rewards.

In our case, the major responsibility for locating internships centers on the respective language instructors involved in the International Business Program. We have different faculty members involved for each language, and naturally we exchange pertinent information concerning a need for other languages. The coordinator for each language also has the sometimes extensive contacts of the other faculty members in each field on which to draw. This utilization of resources appears very obvious, but it is an important first step in networking. In addition, we sent a rather lengthy letter explaining our new program to 200 companies which export to Europe. We received only two responses, which was a considerable disappointment to us; however, of these two, one came from a young French businessman operating in the local area excited about the opportunities our program opened up: he has proved very willing to situate our business students in internships in France through his personal and professional contacts.

The other reply was from a U.S. company interested in engineers with foreign language competency, a request which opened up another entire field of contacts through the School of Engineering and an organization called IAESTE: International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical Experience linked with the Association for International Practical Training. Knowledge of such groups enhances our value as perceived by potential employers. One should not despair if initial efforts to develop internships do not appear to bear fruit. One single lead can potentially bring more opportunities than can be utilized. Our second line of approach is through existing internships in Marketing, Finance, Management, Accounting and Management Information Systems set up by the School of Business Administration and Economics. We hope to develop these further to include more positions where foreign language competency is required or an asset. Direct leads from the Business School faculty are also helpful. The companies may be reluctant to accept foreign nationals, but then we have our own students to offer. Our third resource--of considerable importance--is the campus administration because of its habitual involvement in seeking financial and other support from industry.

Our campus-level administration which is supportive of efforts to internationalize the curriculum has been particularly helpful in our case. It creates the climate of confidence and assurance in which to proceed; it also insures at least some openness to costs involved, mainly in faculty time and communications costs. (If an administration is not supportive, one should present a case for the pressures to internationalize. One can argue that the positive effects of direct exchanges on students' learning processes outweigh the impact of traditional curricular improvements.)

As for the generating of internships abroad, I firmly believe that it would be relative folly to try to arrange internships in foreign countries directly on an individual basis. Of course, certain arrangements can be made with personal contacts, but in addition, cooperative, reciprocal agreements with foreign institutions, e.g., the Graduate School of Business Administration in Lyon, France, which has structures for providing internships already in place, are very helpful. Among other advantages, the host institution can ease the student's adaptation and assist in numerous ways, from helping to get visas to finding housing. A formal undertaking of this sort naturally requires the administration's backing and active participation. The support and indeed approval of the administration is of vital importance for the implementation of reciprocal agreements, and this direct involvement can lead to higher commitment to the program on its part.

The administration can also be of assistance in identifying members of the business community who could potentially accomodate local and/or foreign trainees. High-level members of the President's boards or advisory councils or even trustees, who have a broad view of business trends, if convinced of the value of such exchanges and specifically the concrete value of enabling the institution's own students to participate in a traineeship in the U.S. or abroad, can furnish contacts and again lead the administration to a higher level of motivation and commitment to the program.

I have discussed interaction with the campus administration at length because a key to networking is linking with existing structures, organizations, and contacts.

Other good sources of leads are the Career Development and Placement Center and the Office of Cooperative Education on campus, as well as State Employment Offices, although here timing may present an obstacle with certain employers who need a position filled on a specific date. Another very fertile source for establishing business contacts is through Alumni Associations. For our International Business program, for instance, we have both the former business students and the language majors who have gone into the business world as potential contacts. Explaining to them the new orientation the school is developing has led to very positive reactions among alumni who are impressed by the combination of theory and practical experience the program offers. The advantages of good public relations work are obvious even if no specific internship results from the conversation. Seeds have been planted for future traineeships by the mere fact of informing alumni that the potential exists and that we have students available.

Furthermore, and no doubt most importantly, every call of this sort should definitely include a request for referrals. Every person contacted has an extensive circle of business acquaintances and can assess their probability of using a business trainee relatively simply. In any case, one definitely has nothing to lose by asking! Of course, these referrals may not come to mind immediately, but a follow-up letter describing the program and information on whom to contact is advisable. One may also offer to call again at a specified time.

An effective way to reach the business community in a time-efficient manner is to address meetings of business clubs, either alone or with some of the outstanding students in the program. This approach has worked well in our area with the International Marketing Association and the World Trade Center Association of Orange County. (This technique gives students invaluable exposure to business people.) The county Chamber of Commerce's international business roster is another resource. Had we been launching a large campaign, we would have also sought to have a feature article on our International Business program appear in the business section of our regional paper.

Selective telephoning to specific companies is time-consuming and can be frustrating, but this may very well be the most effective technique to obtain results. It is sometimes difficult to situate the correct person within the company with whom to talk, but the contacts developed through persistence are definitely worthwhile, as can be all the information gleaned. Great faith in the value of what you have to offer is a key ingredient here, both in presenting your case and in withstanding discouragement. With individual calls, one does have the advantage of being able to react directly to specific concerns and tailor the conversation to correspond to the individual's needs. Furthermore, exposure to potential employers' situations and concerns can help strengthen and refine subsequent presentations.

A short summary of my observations may prove helpful at this point:

1. Large corporations are the easiest to identify: there are many business compilations, often with a list of the company officers as well as useful information about the firm's activities. The parameters of these companies, as well as their priorities, tend to be clearly defined. It is possible that your program will not fit into their plans for a reason as simple as timing, for instance; nevertheless, you have established a contact which you can continue to develop.

2. Medium-sized companies (ca. 350 employees): My experience has been that such companies require more time to explore possibilities.

3. Small companies: In some cases, these companies may be stumbled upon only by accident, but there can be great potential for interest in your "product" in certain situations. I tend to rank this category of company--if dynamic (and they have to be in order to survive)--as the most promising even

though luck or chance is involved. Through referrals and personal acquaintances, however, the task can be made easier.

The key elements one hopes to find in conjunction are

A. A receptive person in a position of authority not overburdened or preoccupied by immediate crises (jeopardizing perhaps the very existence of the business).

B. Current engagement in international business or having a basic and relatively immediate desire to expand internationally.

C. Profitability in its current operations.

D. Possibly understaffed.

These small, dynamic, entrepreneurial companies offer distinct advantages for trainees: because of the relatively unstructured nature of operations, there is considerable opportunity for the students to be exposed to almost all aspects of the operation. There is also a greater chance that the student intern may be able to contribute meaningful ideas and suggestions which will be useful to the company. The small business environment also appears more open to viewing the presence of a trainee as a resource rather than as a public service where the trainee is likely to take productive time away from a current employee.

In our particular case, we were looking for companies within close proximity to our campus in order to maximize the interaction among our business students and foreign trainees.

This policy also made housing and transportation easier to arrange. Our criteria may have precluded our finding challenging internships in the greater Los Angeles area, but our goal of facilitating cultural, intellectual, and social exchanges with our business and language students dictated our choices.

The next level of assistance, relatively goal-oriented in its specificity, is governmental organizations of various kinds. Although this type of organization can only help indirectly, foreign trade commissions or commercial attachés can furnish lists of U.S. companies with subsidiaries in the country of interest and companies of that country doing business in the U.S. Of course, one must still make individual calls or group mailings. One can also hope to induce companies to address requests for our students' services by consolidating and publicizing campus resources through development of a "Business Research and Resource Center" or some similar service for businesses on the campus.

One of the most exciting developments in the evolution of our International Business and Language Program has been the discovery that the students themselves are a valuable resource in locating traineeships. It seems to have been assumed at the beginning stages of the program that the faculty members involved in the program would take full responsibility for placing students in internships. Contrary to our expectations, the students have shown great interest, initiative, and high motivation to participate actively in finding internship opportunities. Moreover, their involvement is definitely not limited to insuring that they themselves will find their internship, but is instead general and genuine excitement about being instrumental in obtaining internships for other students and finding ways of bringing foreign interns into our area.

Certain students are concentrating their efforts on locating internships in the local area for our students who do not care to go abroad for a period of training. These students have founded a club called The International Business Students Association which brings in speakers from the business community on a weekly basis, and in general they have done an excellent job publicizing our IB program in the business community.

Another very dynamic group founded a local chapter of the international student club called AIESEC, the French acronym for the International Association of Students in Economics and Business. Although it has normally taken four or five years to establish a local chapter of AIESEC, a small nucleus of our students achieved this goal in less than one year. Their efforts have generated four traineeships for foreign business students from Sweden, Japan, Poland, and Mexico and obtained traineeship offers for our students in France and Finland. There was, of course, a synergistic effect created by the introduction of our International Business Program and the cooperation of our campus community, but the enthusiasm generated by this group's achievements has become a force unto itself.

Besides the fact that this group's activities offer ways for students to be responsible for their own internship, the students develop self-assurance, maturity, and sensitivity in dealing with high-ranking executives. The club's structure also forces them to organize marketing strategies, publicity campaigns, and fund-raising activities. The cultural exchanges afforded by this program alone are far-reaching and very diverse. AIESEC has the unlimited possibility of bringing young student trainees from all areas of the globe into the local area as well as for sending local students almost anywhere in the world. The opportunities for continued contacts and friendships are undoubtedly unrivaled by any other organization.

A further way of developing internships is through student initiative during a student's stay abroad for academic purposes. The student can be geared to develop contacts in the business world for a subsequent traineeship. We tend to consider all our students abroad as "ambassadors" who represent and publicize our programs in any way they can.

But the greatest advantage in the area of student initiative is the fact that as our present excited, committed students reach positions of authority in internationally-minded companies, they will be capable of placing successive generations of students in their own companies and others through their contacts.

And so we come full circle back to the alumni network I discussed earlier. We also anticipate that our IB alumni may also become members of our advisory councils, providing ongoing contact and exchange, thus keeping academia abreast of developments in the business community.

PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING, AND EVALUATING ACADEMICALLY SOUND INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCES FOR MULTINATIONAL BUSINESS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

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Planning, Implementing, and Evaluating Academically Sound Internship Experiences for Multinational Business and Foreign Language Programs

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This paper involves the planning, implementation, and evaluation of academically sound internship experiences for students enrolled in multinational business and foreign language programs at the undergraduate level. Many business administration and foreign language educators are currently and understandably skeptical about the academic quality and reputation of minimally supervised student internships involving the use of a foreign language within a traditional business organization. The sole purpose of this paper is to offer an outline of the procedures and control points by which such internships can be planned, implemented, and evaluated.

The specific vehicle through which effective undergraduate internships in multinational business and foreign language are achieved is the "learning agreement". Such a document provides the means by which the internships are planned and implemented, and offers measurable goals by which student progress can be monitored and evaluated.

The "learning agreement" is the primary set of strategies by which the internship will be performed and completed. It should include each of the following items:

(1) A complete description of the nature of and responsibilities involved in the internship;

(2) The objectives of the internship to include those of academic, professional, and personal natures;

(3) The strategies the student will employ to meet each learning objective, with particular emphasis upon the academic objectives;

(4) The evaluator(s) for the internship, the frequency of evaluative sessions, and the methods to be utilized in the evaluations (conferences, site visits, academic papers/projects, written examinations, and oral recitations, e.g.);

(5) Academic area (department/program) in which credit is desired to include the formal name of the department or program and the rationale for such a selection;

(6) The number of and rationale for the academic credits requested for the internship, and an explanation of how such credits would be applied toward the meeting of graduation requirements;

(7) A timetable to include the proposed length of the internship, the total number of clock hours involved in both the performance of and preparation for the internship, and the fulfillment of the evaluative component of the internship;

(8) Strategies by which the student plans to communicate with all the parties involved in the internship to include both the type and frequency of such communications; and

(9) A brief personal history of the internship applicant to include the following:

    (a) Campus and permanent address and telephone number;

(b) Academic major and minor, and name of advisor;

(c) Academic standing (number of credits passed);

(d) Number of credits passed in the department where the internship is to be applied;

(e) Gradepoint average (Q.P.A.) in both the academic department where the credit is to be applied and the college/university as a whole; and

(f) The total number of internship credits previously received at the undergraduate level.

Each student would be required to submit a formal "learning agreement" in writing to each of the following parties: the faculty sponsor in the academic department permitting the internship, the chairperson of the department allowing the internship (if different from the sponsoring faculty member), the individual supervising the student at the organization offering the internship, and the college/university internship director, where applicable. It should be the responsibility of the student applicant to make sure that all parties receive a copy of the "learning agreement" in sufficient time (usually a minimum of three weeks) to review it and to make any needed changes. All the above parties, in addition to the student applicant, must sign the document.

Although each appropriate party must have a copy of the "learning agreement," only two officially signed copies would be necessary. One official copy should be kept by the academic department allowing the internship, and one official copy should be kept by the college/university internship director, where applicable. The student may also wish to have his/her own official copy.

The "learning agreement" can then serve as a highly useful model by which both to implement and to evaluate the internship experience. The strategies by which each of the major learning objectives of the internship will be achieved are the primary means by which the internship will be implemented. The tactics which the student uses to operationalize each of his/her learning strategies will provide the day-to-day learning experiences for the student during the course of the internship. These tactics and strategies will also ensure that the student intern is meeting new academic and professional challenges on a daily basis and that he or she is truly having a credit-bearing academic experience. These same learning objectives with their associated strategies and tactics can serve as the means whereby the internship is evaluated by each of the parties involved. Each of the major parties involved in the internship should meet together periodically, as provided for in the "learning agreement", to assess the extent to which the student intern is achieving each of his/her stated learning objectives. Such evaluative meetings can and should both strengthen the academic quality of the internship and serve to monitor and critique the student's progress with the internship experience.

Internships, both within the United States and abroad, will continue to be critically important components of multinational business and foreign language programs at the undergraduate level. This paper has attempted to make a serious effort in providing both reasonable and appropriate guidelines by which such internships can be effectively designed, implemented, and evaluated; and in assisting faculty and other associated parties in offering academically, professionally, and personally beneficial internship experiences to interested students.

THE PLACE OF TRAINEESHIPS ABROAD IN THE CURRICULUM OF A FRENCH BUSINESS SCHOOL AND THE POSSIBILITIES FOR TRAINEESHIP EXCHANGES WITH NORTH AMERICA

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THE PLACE OF TRAINEESHIPS ABROAD IN THE CURRICULUM OF A FRENCH BUSINESS SCHOOL AND THE POSSIBILITIES FOR TRAINEESHIP EXCHANGES WITH NORTH AMERICA

INTRODUCTION:

Knowing the language of another country is not sufficient to understand its peculiar way of thinking, as Montesquieu had Rica and Uzbeck discover in 18th-century Paris. First-hand experience is vital to a truer, more in-depth comprehension of any foreign - and thus alien - environment.

If the problem of cultural understanding is addressed from a commercial perspective and placed in the context of the business curriculum, the conclusion naturally derived, whatever the country or school considered, is that practicums abroad are the natural sequel to the attainment of a certain level of language competence. Of course, all of this fine reasoning is predicated upon the recognition of a real need for an international dimension to the studies offered, a need which in turn stems from the orientation of the local or regional economy toward international markets.

LYON AND ITS ECONOMY:

As a case study of this peculiar set of circumstances, we shall propose Lyon, France, and the Lyon Graduate School of Business. Indeed, in Lyon, the linkage of the development of the regional economy to the evolution of traineeships in the business curriculum is particularly clear. From its very prominent position as a hub of European exchanges during the Middle Ages and Renaissance - in large part thanks to its thriving silk trade and internationally-famous trade fair - Lyon gradually gave up ground in succeeding centuries to Paris, which had become both the demographic magnet and economic dynamo of France. However, in this century, Lyon has in its turn created a large regional pool of manpower. Moreover, both the rapid growth of many advanced technology industries and the city's traditional aversion to following the dictates of Paris have led lyonnais businessmen to seek markets abroad. This international outlook spawned a need for multilingual executives with a knowledge of those foreign markets.

Quite naturally, these businessmen looked to the excellent Lyon school fo business, commonly reputed to be among the top four in France, to train these executives of the future.The choice was logical as local business underwrites one quarter of the Lyon school's budget through the taxe d'apprentissage.

THE ESCL CASE:

Thus, just as greatness is thrust upon some, so is internationalism. The Lyon School (hereafter ESCL) has met the demand for internationally-minded young people in a number of ways, only one of which will be dealt with here - traineeships. In order to give a maximum of on-site contact to its students, ESCL requires two traineeships of them, one of six weeks at the end of their first year (of three) of study and a second of three months at the end of their second year. The goal of the six-week practicum is linguistic while that of the second is professional. In other words, the language takes precedence over other considerations for the first traineeship, although there may be, and usually is, a professional aspect, too.

As ESCL requires all of its students to speak English and another foreign language (usually German or Spanish) upon graduation, the stress in the six-week practicum is usually placed on the weaker of the two languages (or on the weakest of the three for those rare students who elect Japanese, Italian, or Portuguese as their third language). Since the linguistic level is obviously lower than it would be in the first foreign language, it is felt that not all students are capable of working in a company in the target language. For this reason, two other possibilities are open to them: a socio-economic study of one aspect of the country in question or, for the very weak, an intensive language course, preferably on a university campus in the country.

THE TRAINEESHIPS:

In all three cases - company traineeship, socio-economic study or language classes - the criteria for acceptability of the traineeship are spelled out to the students during two meetings of the entire first year class. The students are personally guided in their search for a traineeship by their tutor - one of the language faculty - in the target language and may contact the director of foreign traineeships during office hours. The question of definition sometimes becomes thorny: should a traineeship in an English-speaking company in Holland be accepted or should a practicum in German-speaking Yugoslavia be allowed ? Our decision was no in the first case and yes in the second, based on our ground rule that the student must spend his six weeks in a country (or region) where the language is spoken. In another case, a student found a practicum with Air France as an air steward flying between Paris and New York where he was to be based. Should the stage (all-encompassing French term for "traineeship") be permitted? The decision made was to accept it on a pro-rata basis: the cumulative time spent in New York was allowed and a subsequent and compensatory period in the US was demanded. In other words, the student must be both working and living in the target tongu

THE FOLLOW-UP REPORT:

The criteria, then, for the first-year traineeships are clear to the students before they leave. Moreover, the goals remain crystallized in their minds while they are abroad thanks to the obligation to produce a written document distilled from their experience upon their return to Lyon in the fall. The report must be handsome and serious in its presentation - typed, with covers and spiral binding - and well-organized, including title page, table of contents, chapter headings, bibliography (optional), and annexes. Furthermore, there must be a central idea to the study which the student has gleaned from his experience. Among recent reports, such themes as the functioning of the Port of Barcelona, relative language loss in multilingual accident victims, the role of regional trade marts in the U.S. clothing industry, and French-English employee relations in a French restaurant in Great Britain have been treated. This report is taken all the more seriously by the students as its weight in the overall curriculum is considerable and as its submission is followed by a forty-minute defense before the tutor who has followed the student's stage from the beginning. The defense ("soutenance") is also a critical element in the tutor's evaluation of the traineeship as it is often only through this oral exchange that the true personal involvement of the student in his stage becomes apparent. After a quarter-hour, often multi-media presentation of an aspect of his practicum not mentioned or developed in the written report, the student answers questions the goal of which is often to see to what degree his conclusions are based on personal observation rather than library research. Hence, the written and oral presentations are complementary and are perceived and accepted by the students as the culmination of their traineeships.

FINDING A TRAINEESHIP: THE COMITE DES STAGES

Thus, the principle of the traineeship and its different phases is clear. However, there are inherent injustices in the system which are social in origin. In other words, the more well-heeled students need only ask daddy to place them in an American, British, Spanish etc. branch of his firm to obtain a traineeship. The others have to scratch, and often scratch very hard, to find a summer job abroad.

In view of the patent unfairness of the situation and given that the School was to some degree responsible as the traineeship is mandatory, ESCL established a Foreign Traineeship Committee (Comité des Stages) beginning in 1983. The Director of Foreign Traineeships became the President of the Committee and was assisted by the Head of the Language Department, the Director of French Traineeships (Service des Stages), the Dean of the Business School, and the elected representatives of the 1st and 2nd-year classes, as well as any other faculty member or student who wished to participate. The primary goal of the committee was to establish a file of new or renewable traineeships. This task was accomplished through a poll of all second- and third-year students concerning the renewability of their practicum (often, as we have seen, the stage is a gesture made by a given company for a student's father), the person to contact, salary, working conditions, and other remarks. The poll was conducted by a student organization, the B.D.E. Other jobs were found by writing the French Chambers of Commerce abroad and alumni abroad. The German Club organized a systematic mail campaign to all their contacts in Germany and Austria. Finally, the B.D.E. divided all the possible traineeships into files by language (English, German and Spanish). The English file, by far the largest, was then subdivided into two parts: the USA and Canada on the one hand and Great Britain, Ireland and miscellaneous (Hong Kong, Singapore, etc.) on the other.

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A major concern in the dissemination of the references thus gleaned was to avoid deluging any given employer with applications from our institution. Hence, two types of dossiers were prepared: one with the company's address and one without. Several copies of the latter were made available for the students' perusal in the Language Department. Having noted the reference numbers of the traineeships they prefered, the students then came to the Director of Foreign Traineeships during office hours to obtain the addresses. The Director limited the number of students writing any company to a maximum of five. Of course, the students could have shared the addresses among themselves. However, as the aim of the operation had been clearly explained beforehand, this was largely not done. The system of files worked well in spring 1984 and spring 1985 - with the addition of the new stages found in 1984. As of fall, 1985, the files will be computerized to facilitate student access and up-dating although a blind will be maintained so as to control the addresses given out. Naturally, the new traineeships found each year will be regularly added to the file and those not renewed will be deleted after two years. The B.D.E. has assumed this up-dating as an annual task.

The second objective of the Foreign Traineeship Committee was to create documents in the three principal languages - English, German , and Spanish - to help the students in their search for a practicum. Indeed, a need was felt for an official document authenticating and butressing the student's request for a summer job in the eyes of a potential employer. In the United States and Canada in particular, it was found that firms were not familiar with the idea of a stage as practiced in France. Therefore, a first document was created in the three languages explaining the part played by the traineeship in the ESCL curriculum (HANDOUT). Thereafter, a form letter of application was established in the three tongues - distinctions being made for differences in customs and modes of thinking in the three cases (In fact, as the original was written in American English, a demand has now arisen from the students for a British version). Finally, a curriculum vitae was created in English and Spanish. In German, given the complexity of the question, German teachers prefered to devote in-class time to it rather than distributing a form which might be inappropriate to the student concerned. All three documents - explanatory sheet, form letter of application, and standard C.V. - are on word processor and are available from the Language Department upon request. To date the students have found these documents extremely useful in seeking an internship.

EXCHANGE AGREEMENTS:

Another development stemming partially from the work of the Foreign Traineeship Committee is the creation of several exchange agreements with American universities. As mentioned earlier, the students find job seeking in the U.S. and Canada particularly difficult, and this, for two reasons: (1) firms' unfamiliarity with the traineeship principle and (2) the necessity of acquiring a working visa. Although the latter problem has been eased through the good

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offices of the Council on International Educational Exchange in Paris which distributes some 700 working visas to French students each year, the former remains a major deterrent to those who would like to go to North America. Thus, ESCL has embarked on a conscious policy of multiplying exchanges of two or three stages each with certain universities in the U.S. Administratively, these exchanges are the personal responsibility of the Director of Foreign Exchanges. To date, such agreements have been made with the University of Eastern Michigan the University of California at Fullerton, and the University of Hawaii at Manoa. The goal of the exchanges is to guarantee a constant number of practicums in North America with on-site university-provided supervision and the required visa. In return, ESCL selects practicums through the good offices of its 2nd-year traineeship program (Service des stages) and will, upon request, correct and evaluate the reports the American students may be required to make for their home universities. Given the high cost of international travel, the duration of these exchange practicums is usually of between two and three months. It should be noted that the major constraint on the French side is the quality of the American students' spoken French. Naturally, the companies involved assume a high level of linguistic competence. Fortunately, with the development of business French programs in the United States, this level is gradually becoming the norm. On the American side, we find that the practicums proposed may correspond to our 1st or 2nd year stages according to the case. Thus, a stage requiring considerable professional competence in a given field (for example, computer programming) is more easily matched to a second year student's profile. A more "linguistic" period working as a restaurant waiter/waitress or behind a hotel reception desk would better suit a first-year student. The selection of a 1st or 2nd-year student is based upon discussion between the partner institutions before finding the practicum. In all cases, the ESCL student's level in English is high and presents no obstacle.

In sum, ESCL is looking for partner institutions in the United States and Canada which share our belief in the usefulness of traineeships abroad and which can provide both students of a high linguistic caliber and the necessary logistic support to find, over-see, and continue such traineeships over the long term. For ESCL, such practicum exchange agreements are a commitment which we neither engage in nor terminate lightly. However, it is our feeling that other internationally-orientated business schools in France are also awakening to the feasibility of such exchanges with the United States. Naturally, needs and requirements vary from institution to institution in France, just as they do in North America. Thus, there is clearly a need for a central clearing house in both France and the U.S. to match prospective exchange partners on either side of the Atlantic.

TOWARD AN INTERNATIONAL CONSORTIUM:

Solidly established in both countries with its headquarters in New York and Paris, the Council on International Educational Exchange has expressed an interest in playing just such a role. Ms. Andrea Mason, Administrator at the Paris branch of C.I.E.E., is currently investigating the possibility of

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her organization's playing this pivotal part in international practicum exchanges. She will reveal her conclusions during her workshop at the colloquium being held on the ESCL campus on July 5th and 6th, "Language and Internationalizing Business Studies". Should you wish to supply input to Ms. Mason prior to the colloquium, you may write her at the following address:

Mme Andra Mason
C.I.E.E.
1, Place de l'Odéon
75006 Paris

In conclusion, we at ESCL strongly feel that foreign traineeships are a natural and virtually indispensable adjunct to the study of business language, and to the ways business is done in different countries. We believe we have successfully integrated stages into our course of study. Moreover, thanks to the increasingly international nature of our city and region's economies, we are led to train our students for careers abroad and are also able to provide practicums to American students coming to France. In other words, we at ESCL have attained the critical mass for traineeship exchanges and would like to cooperate with American institutions sharing our views.

Robert CRANE, Ph.D.
Director of Foreign Traineeships
Director of Programs for North America

PROFICIENCY EXAMS OFFERED BY CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE: LEGAL AND PEDAGOGICAL ASPECTS

By

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PROFICIENCY EXAMS OFFERED BY CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE: LEGAL AND PEDAGOGICAL ASPECTS

Michele Gragg & Alejandra Tcachuk
Rosary College
River Forest, Ill.

One of the most valuable tools introduced in recent times for the purpose of measuring foreign language proficiency in business and the professions consists of exams adminstered by various foreign Chambers of Commerce in the United States. The two most frequently offered to this date are the Spanish and the French exams.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY OF MADRID

Introduction of the Spanish exam has been rather recent and so far there is no rigorous and uniform set of rules to govern its administration at all centers. In fact, the number of such centers is still very limited. As the Proficiency Exam becomes more widely known and the number of centers increases, the problem of consistency may become more acute in the future.

Rosary College was appointed as one of the centers in the Spring of 1984. The initial guidelines received from the Madrid Chamber of Commerce specified that each center was responsible for the composition of its own exam. Apparently there was not one single test but rather a series of exams sponsered by the Chamber of Commerce. One problem became obvious: uncertainty as to where the responsiblility for the exam actually lies, and possible future legal repercussions of this uncertainty.

Consequently Rosary College decided to request the Chamber to prepare the text of the exam. What the College received in response was considered too brief and easy, in addition to being worded in a style unfamiliar to students trained in the U.S. All this was brought to the attention of the Chamber, together with a more complex version of their original exam as prepared by the Spanish Department of Rosary College. This was satisfactory to both parties as to length, content, and wording. So far, then, responsibility for the text of the exam is shared by the College and the Chamber of Commerce, which signifies its presence and approval by preparing the exam on their letterhead and by affixing their signature and official stamp on every page of the exam.

In order to further convey to the students the degree of involvement by the Chamber, Rosary College emphasizes its own role as AGENT and even then only to the extent of providing the best possible course training and subsequent preparation for the exam. Actual participation is exclusively the decision of each applicant, and he/she is required to sign a statement to that effect attached to the application. The College does not influence their decision in any way. Participants are also informed that the Spanish Department of Rosary College has no control whatsoever over the grading system. Tests are set by registered airmail to Madrid immediately upon conclusion of the oral exam, which is conducted in the presence of a representative from the Chamber in the Chicago area. Results are received several weeks later.

The Madrid Chamber of Commerce and Industry is open to constructive criticism and suggestions, as reflected in their new set of guidelines received prior to the 1985 exam (May 6 and May 7). It is stated, for example, that candidates should demonstrate ""la capacidad de expresarse aun cuando se respete el acento nativo." This might be interpreted as applying to (1) non-native speakers of Spanish and (2) bilingual speakers of Spanish American origin. Under this second interpretation it would seem that allowances have been made for possible discrepancies in language between Spanish and Spanish American usage.

Though unsolicited by Rosary College, the Madrid Chamber of Commerce has provided copies of a few graded exams. Thus it is possible to determine -- to a certain extent -- what is the grading procedure, aside from the obvious errors involving grammatical points, syntax, and business terminology and concepts. Certain terms that denote Spanish American usage (for example, *carro* for *auto*, *reservación* for *reserva*, *posicion* for *puesto*, and *transportación* for *transporte*) have been marked as mistakes in the 1984 exam and circled accordingly. It is perhaps this type of discrepancy that has now prompted the Chamber to include the provision with respect to the "acento nativo."

At least in theory this Proficiency Exam is aimed at "foreign students." However, the new guidelines do not include the previous requirement that applicant from Spanish-speaking countries would not be accepted as candidates. This ban on native Spanish-speakers could hardly be enforced legally in the United States. From a moral standpoint there would be no justification in discriminating against such applicants and withholding from them this additional and valuable tool in today's fierce competitive market. If the Chamber were to insist on such requirements, the problem might be solved by offering two exams at different levels: one for the native speaker of Spanish and the other for those who speak it as a second language.

Despite the Chamber's efforts to come more into line with U.S. practices and needs, there is no doubt that the problem of lack of consistency will have to be faced sooner or later, when sufficient funds are available to make possible the necessary meeting of minds. Meanwhile, pending a concerted effort to give representatives from the various centers a chance to meet with each other and with the Chamber of Commerce, the validity and prestige of the Proficiency Exam will continue to be assured by the present high standards of quality and fairness that the centers have set for themselves; also, by the clear-cut policy of the Chamber to appoint a center only after careful scrutiny of its background, seriousness of purpose, and reputation.

CHAMBER OF COMMMERCE AND INDUSTRY - PARIS (C.C.I.P.)(1)

The C.C.I.P. offers two exams: the Certificate and the Diploma. The introduction of these exams is not recent. To speak only of the Chicago area, the University of Illinois in Chicago has been a pioneer in preparing students for the Certificate since as far back as 1979. Since then Rosary College beginning in 1982, the Alliance Francaise (2) together with St. Xavier College in 1983, and De Paul University in 1984 have become centers which prepare their students for the Certificate. This paper will focus mainly on this exam and the problems raised by the written and oral parts.

The organization of the examinations, as well as their administration, are given a detailed explanation in a brochure entitled "Examens de Francais des Affaires pour Etrangers" as well as in a guideline circulated in the form of six mimeographed pages (3), and which describes the examination sessions, their preparation, organization, and administration.

The written exam which leads to the Certificate consists of four parts: a) a sixty-minute test to control linguistic knowledge, both general and as applied to commerce and industry (definitions, multiple-choice, questions, etc.); b) a sixty-minute test of text comprehension; c) a forty-five-minute test of conventions of correspondence; d) a sixty-minute translation test (sentences or short texts from English into French and French into English). The brochure mentioned above provides more details on the exam. The exam is entirely prepared by the C.C.I.P., and teachers in the centers have no role in drawing it up. This confers a certain neutrality on an exam which is widely recognized and prestigious. Moreover, the C.C.I.P. provides us with samples of exams given in the Winter, Summer, and special sessions. Thus we do have an idea of the different kinds of tests that can be administered. It is possible, for example, to use these samples to build up "mock-exams," and to prepare students for the type of tests they will encounter. In the course of the years, the content of the written part of the Certificate exam has changed. If we compare a 1979 sample with a recent one, the latter will be clearly seen to be more difficult. This is not a criticism, of course. The more the number of interested students grows, the more it is necessary to be careful about maintaining the level of the examination.

In view of the increasing rigor of the examinations, in order to improve the quality of the students' performance in these exams it would help immensely to develop introductory courses, and to build up a year-long sequence of three courses (in a quarter system) or two courses (in a semester system). However, liberal arts colleges sometimes encounter difficulties in changing a humanities-oriented curriculum, and language departments run the risk of being accused of multiplying courses for a limited number of students. In view of this, the experience of Rosary College can perhaps illustrate some ways of overcoming some of these difficulties.

For the first time this year, I gave an introductory course on Business French for students who are at an intermediate level of language skill. The purpose of this course is to familiarize the student with the basic vocabulary of French commerce and industry. The chapters taken up are closely related to their actual life (for example, advertisement, basic banking operations, transportation, post office, telephone, telex, insurance). Questions of French resources and the Common Market are presented at a very simple level. The students are also introduced to commercial correspondence and the reading and interpretation of business texts, together with a modicum of translation. (At this level the "Journal Francais d'Amerique" is a very good source.) This course, French 251, is taken by students who not only have had the basic and intermediate courses in the French language, but also an intensive French reading course. The students are usually sophomores, and the course is given in the Spring. In their junior year they can take the French for Business (French 351), which leads to the Certificate of the Chamber of Commerce. This course, given in the spring, is preceded in the fall by a course in contemporary French culture and civilization already existing in the curriculum. This new sequence of courses seems to provide the students with a good preparation towards the Certificate.

But it would be also very helpful for the teachers to have an exact idea of the way the exams are graded. We do know the amount of points which are alloted to each test section. But we do not know how these points are actually awarded: what is considered as an important mistake, as a minor mistake; how a short essay, how the translations are graded; etc. etc. All teachers should have some guidelines on these questions in order to prepare through their own testing the students who are going to sit for the real exam. It should be possible either to make some kind of mock exam copy with examples of mistakes to be avoided -- or to send back one (anonymous?) copy of a student who failed, and whose mistakes seem to be very characteristic of what to avoid. This should be understood as a dialogue between the examiners in Paris and the teachers in the United States.

Another problem is the great difference between regular students at college or university level and adults who belong to continuing education centers, for example the Alliance Francaise, whose level of language is often more advanced, whose maturity and sometimes experience in business cannot be compared with what is found in the usual undergraduate student. This adult level cannot be expected to be taken as the norm for those sitting for the examination, since the Certificate, it must be remembered, was originally created as an examination for students, and not as a competitive exam. It is sufficient to reward the outstanding students by according them special honors, without penalizing the student who simply displayed enough competence to pass.

The oral part of the examination consists of a fifteen-minute discussion of a text chosen from the business-economic press, and a fifteen-minute translation of an English text into French. For this part of the examination also, it is time to coordinate the level of difficulty of the exams as administered in various centers. This coordination should occur at the level of a city or region, depending on the number of centers existing in a given area. But all teachers, commercial attaches, and professional persons who are involved in the examination should be notified of the periodicals and newspapers read by the students and translated by them. There again some guidelines should be approved by the body of people who deal with the examination.(4)

All of this should not be taken as a negative evaluation of an examination which remains as an inspiration and a challenge for our students who decide that they need or want to acquire a competence in this domain of language skills. The examination stands as a meaningful goal, as a mark of progress toward a desired end, and as a prestigious accomplishment of which the student has reason to be proud. With some fine-tuning it can become an even better integrated component of a new dimension in language education.

FOOTNOTES

1. Address:

Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris
Direction de l'Enseignement
Service des Examens pour etrangers
14 rue Chateaubriand
75008 Paris
France
Tel: (1) 561-99-00.

2. The Alliance Francaise, for the first time this year, presented three candidates for the Diploma. I was one of the jury members for the oral part.

3. The C.C.I.P. furnishes all information free of cost. Simply write to the Director, Mr. Jacques Cartier at the address indicated in note 1.

4. At the time this paper is being revised, I would like to point out an initiative of the Alliance Francaise: for the oral examination of the Certificate held in June, 1985, the same text for comment was offered to all the candidates of each individual jury. The translations for the candidates were different, but all taken out of the same article. Although this procedure limits the range of texts presented by a single jury, it does seem to help equalize the chances of the different candidates of that jury.

THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY INTERVIEW (LPI)
AND ITS APPLICABILITY IN CORPORATE LANGUAGE TRAINING SETTINGS

By

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TITLE: The Language Proficiency Interview (LPI) and its Applicability in Corporate Language Training Settings

Outline:

I. What is the Language Proficiency Interview?

II. How is the LPI administered?

III. What do the ratings (0 to 5) mean?

IV. Who can administer the LPI?

V. How is the LPI applied practically to the corporate situation?

I. What is the Language Proficiency Interview (LPI)?

The LPI is a face to face interview, requiring between twenty minutes and a half hour to administer. The purpose of the interview is to obtain a speech sample of the interviewee that can be reliably rated by trained raters. The LPI is not a test for proficiency in any specific language. Rather, it is a procedure that is applicable to any language, with certain limitations, depending upon the circumstances. These limitations apply more at the very highest level of language and are in large part theoretical when discussing language in the context of business.

The setting of the interview is neither formal nor casual. The environment in which the interview takes place should be fashioned to reduce interviewee anxiety without sacrificing an understanding that it is a serious exchange during which the candidate is expected to demonstrate to the maximum his or her oral language capabilities. The LPI should afford the candidate every opportunity to speak in as natural a context as possible, interacting linguistically with the interviewer on themes that are of some interest to the candidate. While there is a general format to the interview, there is a wide range of subjects or content areas that can be accommodated within that format.

II. How is the LPI administered?

Once a candidate has been notified to appear for an interview and a location has been identified, the interviewer must ensure that the interview location meets certain standards. It must be neither too cold nor too hot. Care must be taken to guard against distractions such as ringing telephones, interrupting colleagues, clattering dishes, chattering tree frogs, motorcycles, buses, trains, airplanes, police or fire sirens, motorized canal boats, or other generally noisy intrusions.

All recording equipment must be set out and tested in advance of the arrival of the interview candidate, if the interview is to be recorded. It is recommended that out of fairness to the candidate, wherever possible recordings of interviews should be made. The uncertain interviewer can always listen to all or part of a tape to determine the adequacy of the speech sample and multiple ratings can be made to check for accuracy. The latter approach is necessary particularly in situations where important decisions are to be made on the basis of the candidate's language level--salary adjustments, assignment abroad, promotions, etc.

Furniture in the interview area must be placed so as not to intimidate the interviewee. The interviewer must not sit behind a desk, for instance, and impose himself upon the interviwee. Chairs must not be too close, so as to avoid an invasion of the interviewee's space. Light or sun must not shine in the eyes of the interviewee. Furniture should be in good repair so as not to distract because of wobbling chairs and tables.

The interviewer is now ready for the interviewee to enter. As to whether there should be only a single interviewer or two interviewers will depend upon the level to be tested, the action to be taken on the results of the interview, and the resources available. For purposes of this paper, let us assume there is only one interviewer. The interviewer will either open the door and invite the interviewee to enter or stand when the interviewee enters or is shown in by a third party. To be standing indicates receptiveness and makes the interviewee feel welcome. From the moment the door opens every action on the part of the interviewer should be calculated to reduce the candidate's anxiety and to encourage the candidate to speak. Sometimes it is not possible to make the interviewee feel completely at ease, but the sensitive interviewer can do much to alleviate the tension that is naturally present in the testing situation.

The interviewee is invited to be seated. If the interview is to be recorded, the interviewee is informed of the recording and is told how it is to be accomplished, whether by attaching lavaliere microphones to a lapel, a shirt or blouse collar or pocket, or by placing a microphone on a table in front of both parties. If a table micropohone is used, it must be able to pick up both voices. Unfortunately, table microphones also pick up a great many noises from outside the interview area, so care must be taken in their use.

The Phases Of The Interview

The LPI is conducted in four phases: warm-up, level check, probe, wind down.

Warm-up--the first phase of the LPI. It is during the warm up that the interviewee is made to feel comfortable. He or she may be invited to have a cigarette, if appropriate, as for people who smoke the cigarette releases much tension. The interviewer, while engaging the interviewee in social niceties, is both putting the interviewee at ease and getting a general assessment of his or her language ability. By the time the interviewee is settled in, the interview is well underway and the interviewer has a fairly good idea of the direction in which the interview will go. Is the candidate barely able to utter the simplest response, much less carry on a conversation? Does the candidate speak with relative ease, albeit only with uncomplicated structures? Can the candidate express himself or herself with structural accuracy and precise vocabulary on any subject that comes up? Is the candidate indistinguishable from an educated native speaker of the language? These will be questions that the interviewer will want to answer during the course of the interview. The main purpose of the warm up was not to assign level. Problems that exhibit themselves during the warm up and do not again exhibit themselves during the course of the interview are not taken into consideration when assigning a rating, since they are often attributable to anxiety rather than to lack of control of language. Indeed, under stress, even native speakers may commit gross errors.

Level Check--the second phase of the LPI. While during the warm up the interviewer listens for an indication of language level, during the level check the interviewer asks the interviewee to speak on matters and in ways that would qualify at a particular level, e.g. Level 1 or Level 2. The level check need not work through the entire range of levels, but rather should focus on the level at which the interviewer thinks the candidate qualifies. For instance, it is pointless to undertake level checks at 1.0 and 2.0 if the speaker is clearly at Level 3.0 or above. If the candidate responds successfully during initial conversation at a level, follow up questions are asked, all calculated to elicit speech at that level.

Probe--the third phase of the LPI. Every interview should have a minimum of three probes at levels that challenge the candidate's speech. The probe is the interviewer's attempt to take the interviewee to the next highest level. If, of course, in the level check the candidate was successful, and if in the probe that followed the candidate was also successful, then the probe leads to further level checks at the next highest level. It is when the candidate is challenged that the probe serves its final purpose. If, in responding to a probe, a candidate demonstrates that he or she is unable to continue at that level, it is referred to as "breakdown," and the interviewer returns to the next previous level.

Following a return to the level check, once the candidate reestablishes the speech level, another probe is made at the next highest level. The interview continues, level check, probe, level check, probe, level check, probe, until the interviewer is satisfied that the speech sample is sufficient for rating.

Wind down--the final phase of the LPI. It is here that the interviewer once again asks the candidate simple questions, the purpose of which is to restore the candidate's confidence and to send him or her out of the interview with a good feeling about it. This is easier said than done if the interview has not gone well, but the effort should be made, nevertheless.

It should be clear from this brief discussion of the conduct of the LPI that the interviewer must be sensitive not only to the language of the interviewee, but also to the content of the candidate's speech and how he or she responds affectively to the interviewer. The interviewer who approaches the interview with a preconceived notion of where the interview will lead, or who considers the interviewer as somebody other than an equal, is unlikely to establish the rapport necessary to obtain a ratable speech sample.

Some common mistakes of inexperienced interviewers are the following:

1. The interviewer does all the talking, preventing the interviewee from effectively demonstrating his or her level of speech.
2. The interviewer asks questions at too high or at too low a level, thereby failing to obtain a ratable speech sample.
3. The interviewer becomes absorbed in what the interviewee is saying and loses control of the interview.
4. The interview rambles, without direction; for lack of focus the interview produces an unratable speech sample.

5. The interviewer has a ready set of questions that he or she will pose to the interviewee, regardless of how the interviewee might respond to a previous question or statement.

6. Connections between lines of thought are not developed, transitions are weak or nonexistent. The interview becomes a series of disconnected questions.

7. Questions can be answered yes or no and interviewee lacks opportunity to speak.

8. The interviewer asks inappropriate questions, thereby offending the interviewee, rendering himself/herself ineffective as an interviewer.

9. The interviewer fails to test the recording equipment and consequently records nothing of the interview. At times these interviews have to be rescheduled, at great cost and inconvenience.

10. The interview is too short.

These, of course, are only some of the more common mistakes on the part of interviewers. The reader can be sure, given the variety and magnitude of error of which humans are capable, that the creative but unthinking interviewer can not only avoid obtaining a ratable speech sample, but can destroy for all time the reputation of interview testing within a program, and in the worst case undo a student's resolve to learn a language.

III. What do LPI ratings (0 to 5) mean?

Level 0, in its most basic manifestation, corresponds to the candidate who has no capability whatsoever in the language being tested. Everybody is a zero in some language, even the erstwhile Mr. Peepers, played by Wally Cox on an early television show, who recognized an Etruscan text when it was shown to him because Etruscan was the only language he did not know.

A person can, of course, possess certain knowledge of a language and still fall within the Level 0 category. This is sometimes disconcerting to the beginning student because the expectations are that after study, one naturally begins to go up the scale.

At the other end of the scale is Level 5. Level 5 corresponds to the equivalent of the educated native speaker of the language. The word "educated" is very important. When we listen to an educated person speak we hear different vocabulary, different structures, we discuss more abstract topics and we have expectations as to register. The less education a person has, the greater the allowance we make in conversing. That at Level 5 a person is required to speak the language of the educated relegates by birth and opportunity a large portion of any native speaker population to something of a never-never land along a parallel spectrum. This paper is not of sufficient depth to discuss what constitutes a true Level 5 speaker, especially since it is an issue that is never resolved to everybody's satisfaction. For business purposes, whether a person is at Level 4, 4+ or 5 is of little importance.

Plus Values: Levels 0 through 4 have plus values which indicate that the candidate is almost at the next highest level, but for some reason does not cross the threshold or, if the candidate does so, it is not done consistently. There are different ways to achieve a plus rating within a level, and for Levels 0,1, and 2 a person can be compensated for performing exceptionally well in certain of the pertinent categories: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and cultural-sociolinguistic factors.

There was a time when comprehension was included in this list. I am not entirely sure what became of comprehension, how it got lost in discussions of the interview and the rating scale, as nobody would deny its importance in communication. Because it is a passive skill, however, it is more difficult to test reliably than are the other categories, which are based on an active skill. For the interviewer to attempt to test comprehension by slurring his or her speech intentionally, by mumbling, accenting his speech, or using regionalisms, arcane or extremely low frequency vocabulary, would introduce questionable and extremely subjective material into an interview. From a technical point of view, that is not adviseable.

Definitions of Language Proficiency Levels

Level 0: Unable to function in the language.

Verbal production limited to occasional isolated words; little or no comprehension of even the most simplified and slowed speech; essentially no functional communication in the course of the interview.

Level 1: Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements.

Can ask and answer questions on highly familiar topics; within the scope of a very limited language experience, can understand simple questions and statements, allowing for slowed speech, repetition, or paraphrase; speaking vocabulary inadequate to express anything but the most elementary needs; errors in pronunciation and grammar are frequent, but can be understood by a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners attempting to speak the language. While elementary needs vary considerably from individual to individual, any person at Level 1 should be able to handle formulas of politeness, order a meal, ask for shelter or lodging, ask for and give simple directions, make purchases, and tell time.

Level 2: Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements

Can handle with confidence but not with facility most social situations, including introductions and casual conversations about current events, and can deal with work, family, and autobiographical information;

language competence sufficient to handle limited work requirements, not involving linguistic complications or difficulties; can get the gist of most conversations on subjects requiring no specialized knowledge; has a speaking vocabulary sufficient to communicate simply with some circumlocution; accent, though often quite faulty, is intelligible; can usually handle elementary constructions accurately but does not have thorough or confident control of the grammar.

Level 3: Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, and professional topics.

Can discuss particular interests and special fields of competence with reasonable ease; comprehension is quite complete for a normal rate of speech; vocabulary is broad enough that it is rarely necessary to grope for a word; accent may be obviously foreign; control of grammar good; errors virtually never interfere with understanding.

Level 4: Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs.

Can understand and participate in any conversation within the range of his or her experience with a high degree of fluency and precision of vocabulary; would rarely be taken for a native speaker but can respond appropriately even in unfamiliar situations; errors of pronunciation and grammar quite rare.

Level 5: Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.

Has complete fluency in the language such that his or her speech is fully accepted by educated native speakers as native in all of its aspects, including breadth of vocabulary and idiom, colloquialisms, and pertinent cultural references.

At each level the interviewer approaches the interview from three directions: a) function, or linguistic tasks, such as narration or description, asking questions, or giving directions; b) context, the content of the discussion or the topic of the conversation; and c) accuracy, or the grammatical and lexual acceptability, quality and precision of the message conveyed.

The function, context, and accuracy requirements change as the interviewer moves from level to level. Consistency of performance influences not only the direction of the interview but ultimately the rating itself.

The novice interviewer/rater is often overwhelmed by the multiple facets of the interview. An important notion to keep in mind is that the LPI rating is global in nature. No single point makes or breaks the rating. The capable interviewer, during a 20 or 25 minute interview, in nearly every case can obtain a speech sample sufficient for accurate rating. Of course, the higher the level, the more difficult it is to interview, particularly for the lone interviewer.

IV. Who can administer the LPI?

While it can be said that anybody who has a background in language teaching or training would be able to administer the LPI, nobody should attempt to do so in a formal setting without undergoing training.

The training process is undertaken in a variety of settings by a number of entities. There is a joint government/private effort underway to make training available. Involved in the program are the major government language training programs, private entities, such as Educational Testing Service, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), and a number of colleges and universities around the country.

In the classroom or language training center setting teachers should always try to assess the level of their students. A familiarity with the LPI rating scale can provide a basis for that assessment, in a meaningful proficiency-based context that is approaching universal acceptance in academic and government circles in the U.S., as well as in certain locations abroad.

V. How is the LPI applied practically to the corporate situation?

The LPI, as a face to face interview, is by definition labor intensive. It proves to be very expensive if a corporation wants to test a lot of people. In terms of numbers, my experience has been that with low level interviewees perhaps as many as fifteen may be effectively tested in a day, but certainly no more than that. If asked to make a recommendation, I would say that no more than ten candidates should be tested by any single interviewer during the course of a day and that interviewing be interspersed with other activity that would let the mind rest.

Given the expense involved in extensive interview testing, if a corporation wants to identify employees at a particular level, they might consider administering a screening device, in the form of a test of passive skills. Such a test would separate those employees who are clearly not at the level sought from those who are potentially at the level.

This two-phase approach to testing is what happens in the corporate context in Japan, where the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), a test developed by Educational Testing Service, is administered to the corporate population. Those candidates who achieve a specified score can apply to sit for an interview test and receive a certificate of rating. The pass level is one that corresponds to the 2+/3 threshold, the purpose being to identify personnel who are qualified at the minimum professional level.

The program in Japan is administered not by ETS but rather by the TOEIC Steering Committee, the local TOEIC representative. In Japan the TOEIC program also makes available to client corporations training for internal interviewers who interview language learners in corporate programs.

In Korea the TOEIC program is currently moving in the same direction, and we expect that ultimately, in a number of locations around the world, the LPI will be established as the standard for oral production. The advantages of the LPI as a testing procedure are that it is transportable, it does not require special equipment, an interview can be administered in thirty minutes, a person can become familiar with the rating scale and interview techniques during a 2-day workshop, and with trained and experienced interviewers the interrater reliability can be quite high. This last point is very important. If an interview program does not have clearly defined thresholds, the interrater reliability will be low. This happens when the defined thresholds are not intrinsic to the language learning process, as I believe the thresholds of the LPI to be, at least at levels 1, 2, and 3, or when levels are so numerous as to overlap and thereby create uncertainty and confusion among raters.

A corporation or language training center would do well to consider the Language Proficiency Interview for candidates who require a rating of their speaking ability. The LPI tests communicative competence in as effective a way as can be imparted. And while it has its limitations, in the practical world of language learning, where the theoretical discussions of what constitutes communicative competence and whether it can be tested at all, people do not want problems, they want answers.